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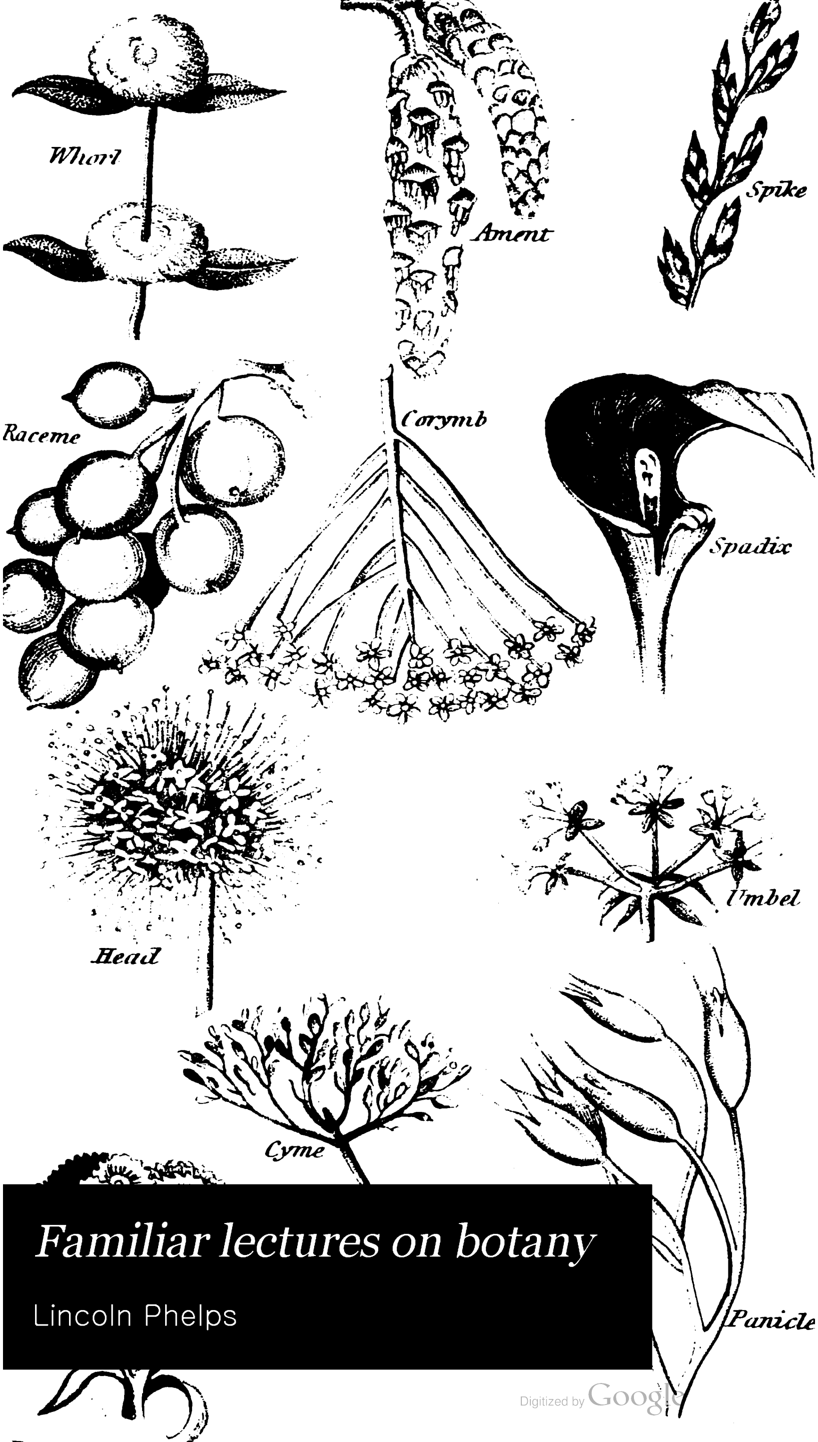


Familiar lectures on botany

Lincoln Phelps

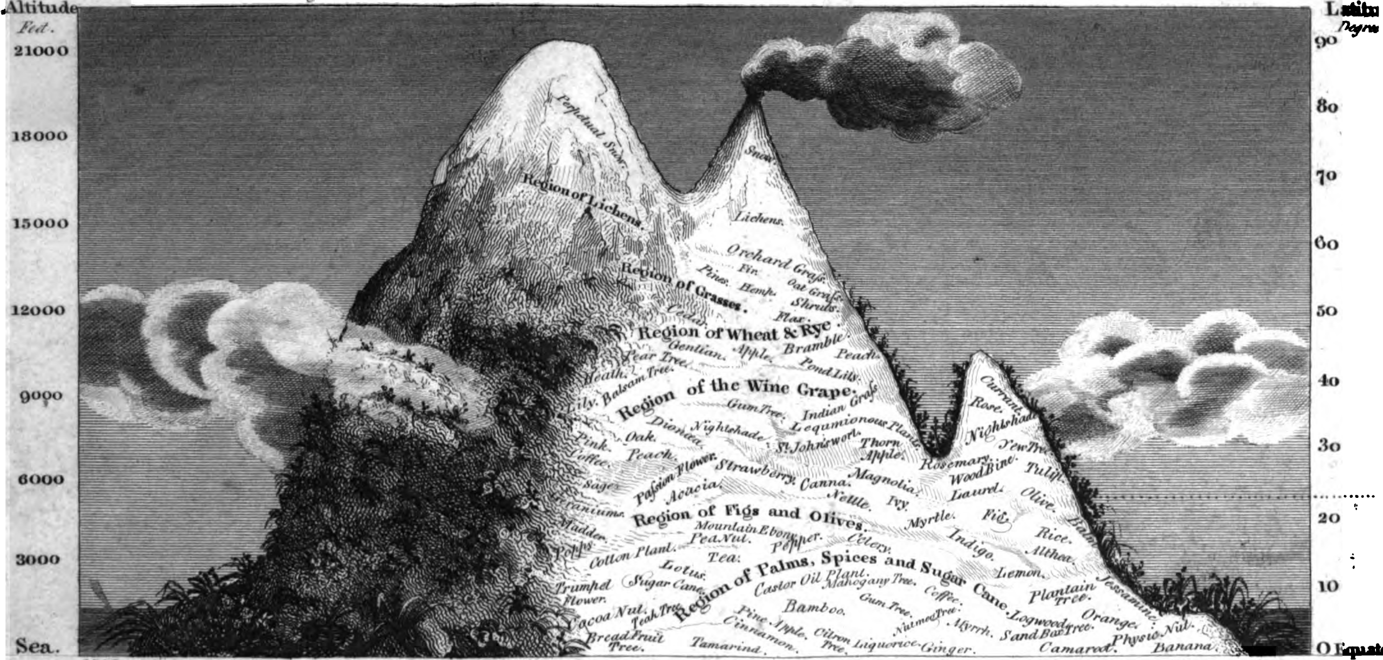
KD35269

Ex. Harvard University
Dec. 18. '39

Mary Carter

Top of Chimborazo 21000 feet from the level of the Sea. — Cotopaxi 18,876 Feet. —

Plate 1.



Miss Lee del.

Hilman & Pilbrow Sc.

Progress of vegetation at different elevations, corresponding with its progress in different Latitudes.

£HC

FAMILIAR LECTURES

ON

BOTANY.

INCLUDING

Practical and Elementary Botany,

WITH

GENERIC AND SPECIFIC DESCRIPTIONS

OF

THE MOST COMMON NATIVE AND FOREIGN PLANTS,

AND

A VOCABULARY OF BOTANICAL TERMS.

FOR THE USE OF

HIGHER SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES.

Phelps, Almira (Hart) Lincoln

BY MRS. ALMIRA H. LINCOLN,
VICE-PRINCIPAL OF TROY FEMALE SEMINARY.

Hartford:
PUBLISHED BY H. AND F. J. HUNTINGTON;
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1829.

KD 35269

District of Connecticut, ss.

Be it remembered, that on the 4th day of July A. D. 1829, in the 54th year of the Independence of the United States of America, H. and F. J. Huntington of the said district have deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof they claim as proprietors in the words following, to wit: "Familiar Lectures on Botany, including Practical and Elementary Botany, with generic and specific descriptions of the most common Native and Foreign Plants, and a Vocabulary of Botanical Terms. For the use of Higher Schools and Academies. By Mrs. Almira H. Lincoln, Vice-Principal of Troy Female Seminary." In conformity to the Act of Congress of the United States, entitled "An Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the time therein mentioned." And also to an Act, entitled "An Act, supplementary to an Act, entitled an Act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of Maps, Charts, and Books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned, and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints."

CHARLES A. INGERSOLL,
Clerk of the district of Connecticut.

A true copy of Record, examined and sealed by me,
CHARLES A. INGERSOLL,
Clerk of the district of Connecticut.

H. C. Sleight, Printer,
No. 3, *Marble Building, Chatham Square, New York.*

TO

MY MOTHER,

MRS. LYDIA HEART.

Though a name conspicuous in the scientific world might add popularity to this little work now offered to the public; affection for my venerable parent induces me to dedicate to her, what will, to her, be interesting, however it may be regarded by the severe eye of criticism. That my sister has, within the past year, dedicated to our parent her "*History of the Republic of America*," has given me an opportunity to know, that there is a power in these marks of attention from her children, which may awaken more vivid emotions in the breast of my aged mother, than most events connected with a world, which has almost vanished from her sight in the brighter visions of eternity; that she may find the pious sentiments imbibed from herself, in some degree reflected from the following pages, is the wish of her

DAUGHTER,

ALMIRA H. LINCOLN.

Troy Female Seminary, April 20, 1829.

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PREFACE.

"A preface," says Smellie, the author of the "Philosophy of Natural History," "should contain an account of the circumstances and motives which induced an author to write upon that particular subject." The origin of the present volume, may be briefly traced. In the course of some years, devoted in part to the study of Botany, and with the charge of a large class, I found the want of a suitable book for beginners, and prepared for the use of my pupils a sketch, of which the following pages are but the filling up. The pupils were in the practice of copying the manuscript, but it required much time, and some of them expressed a wish that they might have the same in a printed form. In conversing with Professor Eaton on the subject, he urged the necessity of some suitable work for beginners, and generously offered me the assistance of some manuscripts formerly prepared by himself for a similar purpose. With so able an adviser as Professor Eaton, encouraged by my sister, the principal of this institution, and with no ordinary degree of enthusiasm for the science, I commenced preparing these lectures for the press.

With respect to botanical facts, I have no claim to any discoveries, neither have I ventured to make any innovations upon the science itself. The works of Mirbel, Demerson, Rosseau, St. Pierre, Smith, Thornton, Woodville, Eaton, Torrey, Bigelow, Nuttall, Elliot, Barton, Bartram, Rafinesque, Sumner, and Locke, Encyclopedias and the Journal of Science, have been consulted. With respect to the style, whatever may be its merits, or its faults; the arrangement of the work and the application of botanical facts to the mind, either with a view of strengthening its reasoning faculties, or to inspire devout affection, I consider myself as responsible. I have not intentionally, copied from any work, without giving credit to the author. The History of botanical science, in a considerable degree, is a very free translation from Mirbel.

The description of the genera and species of plants, with the Natural Orders of Linnæus and Jussieu, have been furnished me by Professor Eaton, to whom my thanks for this, and other kind offices are justly due.

It has been customary among botanical writers, to consider under separate heads, the physiology, anatomy, and classification of plants. This division, although proper in minute investigations upon physiology and anatomy, seems not well adapted for a school book. I have not therefore attempted to keep the departments separate. Many errors will no doubt be discovered in the first edition of this work; it has been prepared in intervals from duties connected with this institution, and while instructing in such branches of education, as required the best faculties of my mind; often, when fatigued with mental exertions, have been written pages of these lectures,* and handed over to an assistant for copying, with scarcely a review. More time devoted to correcting and polishing the work, would no doubt save the author and her friends many mortifications; it has been hurried in order to supply our own classes during the present season for botanizing. It is now before the public, who, while they avail themselves of the facilities which it offers, for the promotion of botanical knowledge, it is hoped, will kindly overlook any inadvertencies in the style. The work is larger than I had at first designed; it may be urged, that remarks are introduced not strictly connected with the subject, and that the substance of the book might be much condensed. In answer to this objection, I would remark, that from experience in teaching others, and from observation of the operations of my own mind, I am led to believe that books most remarkable for a concise style, are not the most favourable for the developement of the mind. If a book is to be committed to memory, every word, member of a sentence, or idea, not absolutely essential, should be excluded; but this fact with regard to education seems now to be generally understood, that the memory may be burdened without improving the other intellectual faculties, and that the best method of teaching, is that which tends most to develope, fertilize, and strengthen the mind.

A small text book, in a dry, concise style, may answer very well where a teacher has leisure and ability to amplify and explain; thus supplying to the pupils the want of an interesting book: yet with all this labour on the part of a teacher, a book containing interesting illustrations, would be desirable. But many teachers have neither the time, nor the confidence in themselves, to attempt to enlarge or illustrate: considering their duty as terminating in a faithful explanation of the book from which their pupils study.

It is desirable that school books should be easy to *teach*, and easy to *learn*. The essentials for these purposes are,

1st. A clear and methodical arrangement of subjects.

2d. Perspicuity of language.

3d. A pleasing style, and interesting illustrations.

A reference to these views has accompanied my mind in the progress of this work; whether I have attained to the standard in view, it remains for experience to determine.

But much as I have desired to aid the youthful mind in acquiring the elements of knowledge, still more have I desired to lead that mind to the fountain of all knowledge, to teach it to behold the providence of God as ever active, and ever watchful over all, even the least of his works.

---

* The lectures to my class have been extempore; oral instruction being combined with questioning.

I am greatly indebted to the kindness of Dr. Robbins, who amidst the fatigue of professional duties, has performed a service, for which, by long and close study of the ancient languages, he is peculiarly well qualified, that of accenting the genera and species of plants annexed to these lectures. This it is believed will prove of great utility both to teachers and pupils; for without some guide, those who are unacquainted with the principles of accentuation in the Latin and Greek languages, are liable to many mistakes in pronouncing botanical names.

The plates which accompany this work, have been taken from drawings, executed expressly for this purpose by a friend; from their correctness and simplicity, they can scarcely fail of being a useful appendage to the explanations of the book. The curious discoveries in the structure of the vegetable, made by the help of the microscope, have not been much exhibited; it appeared more proper chiefly to illustrate elementary principles.

TO TEACHERS.

In offering this book as an assistance to Instructors, the Author hopes to have rendered the first principles of the Science of Botany, of easy attainment; and that Instructors, in the developement of the work, will find such methodical arrangements, and simple illustrations, as may render it easy for pupils, and agreeable to themselves.

The most proper time for commencing botanical studies, seems to be that of the opening of flowers in the spring; though, should circumstances render it desirable to commence in winter, every assistance thought necessary, is offered by drawings, and the representations of dissected plants. The arrangement of subjects might be altered in pursuing the study, without the aid of natural flowers. The second part, which treats of the various organs of plants, the formation of buds, and other subjects connected with vegetable physiology; the fourth part, which gives the history of science, with the distinctions in the kingdoms of nature, might be studied to advantage, before attending much to the principles of classification which are mostly illustrated in the first and third parts.

The Botanical Class in this Institution, have for some years past been composed of about forty pupils. The method pursued in teaching, has been very laborious, as the want of suitable books, rendered it necessary for the Author of these Lectures, who has taken charge of the class, to devote much time and attention, in gleaning from different writers, such facts and principles as would illustrate the science, and make it interesting to the pupils. This work contains the substance of what has been thus collected, and the method in which those facts and principles have been illustrated and arranged. A brief view of the manner in which I have proceeded in teaching, may be satisfactory to those about to commence with the science.

On the first meeting of the class, after some explanation as to the nature of the study they are about to commence, each member is presented with a flower for analysis. The flower selected is always a simple one, exhibiting in a conspicuous manner the different organs of fructification; the lily and tulip are both very proper for this purpose. The names of the different parts of the flower are then explained, each pupil being directed to dissect and examine her flower as we proceed. After noticing the parts of fructification, the pupils are then prepared to understand the principles on which the artificial classes are founded, and to trace the plant to its proper class, order, &c. At each step, they are required to examine their flowers, and to answer simultaneously, the questions proposed; as, how many stamens has your flower? Suppose it to be a lily, they answer six. They are then told it is of the sixth class. How many pistils? They answer one—they are told it is of the first order. They are then directed to take their books and turn to the sixth class, first order, to find the genus. In each step, in the comparison, they are questioned as above described, until, having seen in what respects their plant agrees with each genral division, and differs from each genus under the section in which it is found, they ascertain its generic name. They are taught in the same manner to trace out its species; their minds perceiving at each step, some new circumstances of agreement or disagreement, until they come to a species, the description of which answers to the plant under consideration.

Technical terms are explained as we proceed; and the advantage in this kind of explanation, over that of any abstract idea, is, that it is manifested to their senses by the object before them. If a teacher attempt to define the words, *reason*, *will*, &c. or any other abstract terms, there is danger that the pupil may, from misunderstanding the language used in the explanation, obtain but a very confused and imperfect idea of the term; and, indeed, what two authors or philosophers give the same definition to abstract terms? Though mankind do not, in the purely mental operations, exhibit an entire uniformity, yet in their external senses, they seldom disagree. A flower which appears to one person to be composed of six petals, bell-form, corolla long and narrow, leaves of a yellow or white colour, is seen to be so by another.

Pupils who find it difficult to understand their other studies, (which in early youth are often too abstract,) are usually delighted with this method of analyzing plants; they feel that they understand the whole process, by which they have brought out the result, and perhaps for the first time enjoy the pleasure of a clear idea, upon a scientific subject. It is necessary, before the meeting of the class, to have a suitable number of plants collected, so that all may have specimens. In examining the pupils as they proceed in their study, each one, besides reciting a lesson, should be required to give an analysis of a plant; sometimes the whole class having but one species, sometimes giving to each pupil permission to bring any flower she chooses. This, also, at public examinations, is a satisfactory method of testing their knowledge of the subject. With respect to those portions of the work to which their attention should most particularly be paid, it must be left to the judgment of the teacher. Whatever relates to modes of classification, and makes part of a system, should be noted; many remarks, illustrations, and quotations, are designed merely for reading, without being considered as important matter for recitations.

An analysis of the subjects of each Lecture is given, as a substitute for questions; the practice of having set questions, appearing too mechanical for teachers, who feel the spirit of the sciences they teach. This analysis it is thought will answer all the important purposes of questions, without being attended with their disadvantages.

The author would gratefully receive any corrections of errors, or suggestions, with respect to improvements, particularly from teachers who may use the work.

INTRODUCTION.

LECTURE I.

Importance of System.—Advantages to be derived from the Study of Botany.

The universe consists of *matter* and *mind*. By the faculties of mind with which God has endowed us, we are able to examine into the properties of the material objects by which we are surrounded. If we had no sciences, nature would present exactly the same phenomena as at present. The heavenly bodies would move with equal regularity, and preserve the same relative situations, although no system of Astronomy had been formed. The laws of gravity and of motion, would operate in the same manner as at present, if we had no such science as Natural Philosophy. The affinities of substances for each other remain now as they were before the science of Chemistry existed. It is an important truth, and one which cannot be too much impressed upon the mind, in all scientific investigations, that no systems of man can change the laws and operations of Nature; though by systems we are enabled to gain a knowledge of these laws and relations.

The Deity has not only placed before us an almost infinite variety of objects; but he has given to our minds the power of reducing them into classes, so as to form beautiful and regular systems, by which we can comprehend, under a few terms, this vast number of individual things, which, without system, would present to our bewildered minds a confused and indiscriminate mass. This power of the mind, so important in classification, is that of discovering resemblances. We perceive two objects, we have an idea of their resemblance, and we give a common name to both; other similar objects are then referred to the same class, or receive the same name. A child sees a flower which he is told is a rose; he sees another resembling it, and nature teaches him to call that also a rose. On this operation of the mind depends the power of generalizing, or forming classes.

Some relations or resemblances are seen at the first glance; others are not discovered until after close examination and reflection; but the most perfect classification is not always founded upon the most obvious or striking resemblances: for example, a person ignorant of Botany, on beholding the profusion of flowers which adorn the face of nature, would discover general resemblances, and perhaps form in his mind some order of arrangement; but the system of Botany now in use, neglecting those parts which might seem to constitute the whole flower, is founded upon the observation of small parts of the blossom, which had perhaps remained unnoticed.

System is necessary in every science. It not only assists in the acquisition of knowledge, but enables us to retain what is thus acquired; and, by the laws of association, to call forth what is treasured up in the storehouse of the mind.

System is important not only in the grave and elevated departments of science, but is essential in the most common concerns and operations of ordinary life. In conducting any kind of business, and in the arrangement of household concerns, it is indispensable to the success of the one, and to the comfort of those interested in the other. The very logical and systematic arrangement which prevails in Botanical science, has, without doubt, a tendency to induce in the mind the habit and love of order; which, when once established, will operate even in the minutest concerns. Whoever traces the system which classes the vegetable tribes through its various connexions, by a gradual progress from individual plants to general classes, until the whole vegetable world seems brought into one point of view; and then descends in the same methodical manner, from generals to particulars, must acquire a habit of arrangement, and a perception of order, which is the true practical logic.

The study of Botany seems peculiarly adapted to females; the objects of its investigation are beautiful and delicate; its pursuit leading to exercise in the open air is conducive to health and cheerfulness. Botany is not a sedentary study which can be acquired in the library; but the objects of the science are scattered over the surface of the earth, along the banks of the winding brooks, on the borders of precipices, the sides of mountains, and the depths of the forest.

A knowledge of Botany is indispensable to the medical profession. Our Almighty Benefactor, in bestowing upon us the vegetable tribes, has not only provided a source of refined enjoyment in the contemplation of their beautiful forms and colours; in their fragrance, by which, in their peculiar language, they seem to hold secret communion with our minds; he has not only given them for our food and clothing, but with kind, parental care, has, in them, provided powers to counteract and remove the diseases to which, since the mournful fall of the first of our race, the family of mankind have been subjected. For many ages plants were the only medicines known, or used; but modern discoveries in Chemistry, by forming compounds of previously existing elements, have in some degree, superseded their use. Although the science of medicine has received much additional light from Chemistry, it may perhaps in modern days have occupied the attention of medical men too exclusively; inducing them to toil in their laboratories, in order to form those combinations which nature had done much more perfectly, in the plants which they passed unheeded. It is said by an eminent physician, that in the catalogues of the most useful medicines, the productions of the animal and mineral kingdoms, bear but a small proportion to the vegetable.

It is perhaps no uncommon idea, with the generality of people, that herbs are all somewhat alike in their properties, and that it is not very important what species they use in particular cases, since, if they do no good, they will do no hurt. This is an error from which much evil has resulted; health and life have been sacrificed through its influence. When our forefathers came to this country, they found the natives in possession of much medical knowledge of plants. Having no artificial remedies prepared by scientific skill, the Indians were led by necessity to the use of those which nature offered them; and, by experience and observation, they had arrived at many valuable conclusions as to the qualities of plants. Their mode of life leading them to penetrate the shades of the forest, to climb the mountain precipices, naturally associated them much with the vegetable world. The Indian woman, the patient sharer in these excursions, urged by a mother's affection, was led to look for such plants as she might use for the diseases of her children. Each new and curious plant, though not viewed by her as a botanist would now behold it, doubtless was regarded with scrutinizing attention; the colour, the taste, the smell, were carefully remarked as indications of its properties. But the discoveries and observations of the Indians have perished with themselves; having no system for the classification or description of plants, nor any written language by which such a system might have been conveyed to others, no vestige but uncertain tradition remains of their valuable knowledge of the medicinal qualities of plants.

The study of nature in any of her varieties is highly interesting and useful. But the heavenly bodies are far distant from us, and were they within our reach, are too mighty for us to grasp; our feeble minds seem almost overwhelmed in the contemplation of their immensity. Animals though affording the most striking marks of designing wisdom, as seen even in the structure of the minutest insect, cannot be dissected and examined without painful and unpleasant sensations. The vegetable world offers a boundless field of inquiry, which may be explored with none but the most pure and delightful emotions. Here the Almighty seems to manifest himself to us with less of that dazzling sublimity which it is almost painful to behold in his more magnificent creations; but it might almost appear as if accommodating the vegetable world in some degree to our capacities, he had especially designed it for our investigation and amusement.

The study of Botany naturally leads to a greater love and reverence for the Deity. We would not affirm that it does in reality always produce this effect; for unhappily there are some minds which though quick to perceive the beauties of nature, seem blindly to overlook Him who spread them forth. They can admire the gifts, while they forget the Giver. But those who feel in their hearts a love to God, and who see in the natural world the workings of his power, can look abroad, and, adopting the language of a christian poet, exclaim,

> "My Father made them all."

DIVISION OF THE SUBJECT.

Having endeavoured to convince you that the study you are about to commence, is recommended by its own intrinsic utility, and especially by its tendency to strengthen the understanding and improve the heart, we will now proceed to lay before you the arrangement which we propose to follow in our course of instruction.

We will divide our course of study into *Four Parts*, viz.:

Part I. Will be chiefly devoted to the *Analysis* of *Plants*, or lessons in *Practical Botany*.

Part II. We shall here consider the various organs of the plant, beginning with the root and ascending to the flower; this part will include what is usually termed Elementary Botany; it will also contain remarks upon the uses of the various organs of plants, the Nature of vegetable substances, the Anatomy of plants, and other circumstances connected with vegetable Physiology.

Part III. In this part we shall consider the principles of *Classification* as applied to Botany, and the superiority of the Linnæan System over all others. We shall exhibit a detailed view of this system, remarking upon some of the most prominent genera of plants, with the most striking Natural families, found under each class and order.

PART IV. In this part we shall consider the Progressive appearance of Flowers during the season of blossoming; their various phenomena produced by the effect of *different states* of the atmosphere, light, &c.; their distribution over the face of the earth, and the effect of elevation as similar to that of distance from the equator. After giving a History of Botany, we shall take a general view of Nature; of the distinction between organized and inorganized matter; and give a sketch of the classification of Animals, with some remarks upon the analogies, and differences presented by a view of the animal and vegetable kingdom.

PART I.

LECTURE II.

General division of the sciences which relate to mind and matter—Different departments of Botanical Science—Of the parts of a flower.

THE Universe, as composed of *mind* and *matter*, gives rise to various sciences. The SUPREME BEING we believe to be *immaterial*, or *pure mind*.

The knowledge of *mind*, may be considered under *two general heads*.

1. THEOLOGY, is that science which comprehends our views of the Deity, and our duties to Him.

2. PHILOSOPHY OF THE HUMAN MIND, is the science which investigates the mind of man, and analyzes and arranges its faculties.

The knowledge of *matter*, may be considered under *three general heads*.

1. NATURAL PHILOSOPHY, which considers the effects of bodies acting upon each other by their mechanical powers: as their weight and motion.

2. CHEMISTRY, in which the properties, and mutual action of the elementary parts of bodies are investigated.

3. NATURAL HISTORY, which considers the external forms and characters of objects, and arranges them in classes.

NATURAL HISTORY is divided into *three branches*.

1. ZOOLOGY, which treats of animals.

2. BOTANY, which treats of plants.

3. MINERALOGY, which treats of the inorganized masses of the globe: as stones, earths, &c.

GEOLOGY, which treats of minerals as they exist in masses forming rocks, is a branch of mineralogy.

Having thus presented you with this general view of the sciences, we will now proceed to that department which is to be the object of your present study.

DEPARTMENTS IN BOTANY.

Botany, that department of Natural History which we are now to investigate, treats of the vegetable kingdom, including every thing which *grows, having root, stem, leaf, or flower.* This science comprehends the knowledge of the methodical arrangement of plants, of their structure, and whatever has relation to the vegetable kingdom. The study of plants may be considered under three general heads.

1st. That part of Botany which treats of the different external organs of plants, is called *Vegetable Anatomy*, and in many respects corresponds with the anatomy of animals.

2d. The classification of plants by means of comparing their different organs, is termed *Systematic Botany.*

3d. The knowledge of the relations and uses of the various parts of plants with respect to each other, is termed *Physiological Botany.* This department, strictly speaking, includes Vegetable Anatomy.

Systematic Botany is divided into the *artificial* and *natural methods.* The artificial method is founded upon different circumstances of two organs of the plant, called the pistils and stamens. Linnæus of Sweden was the first who discovered that these organs are common to all plants, and essential to their existence. Taking advantage of this fact, he founded his classes and orders upon their number, situation, and proportion. By this artificial system, plants are brought together which are unlike in their general appearance, as in a dictionary, words of different signification are placed together from the mere circumstance of their agreeing in their initial letters.

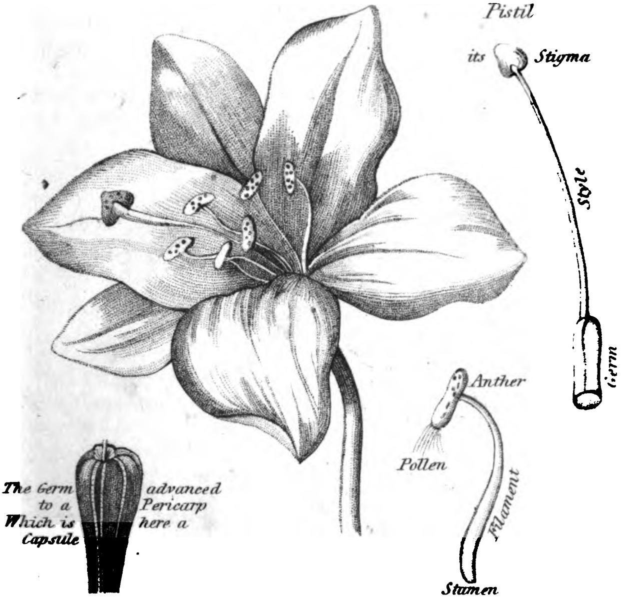
PARTS OF THE FLOWER.

Before you can learn the principles on which the classification of plants depends, it is necessary that you should become acquainted with the parts of a *flower.* You have here a drawing which represents two very common flowers, a Lily and a Pink. You can, by comparing with these drawings, the descriptions about to be given, acquire a knowledge of the parts of a flower; and the farther to assist you, the flowers are dissected, that is, the different organs are drawn separately. Yet when you can procure natural flowers, they should always be examined in preference to any artificial representations.

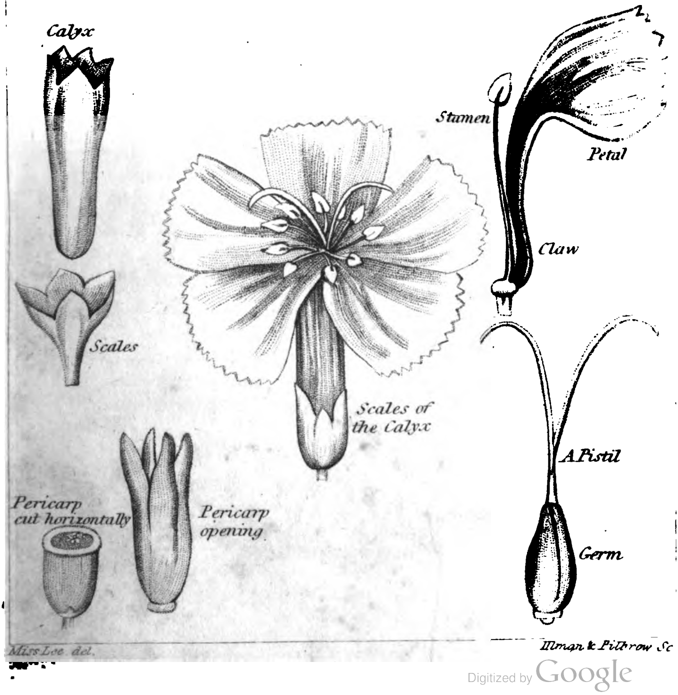
You all know what the flower blossom is, and call each part of it a flower leaf; but in the language of botany the pieces which you call the flower leaves, are the *Petals*, and all the petals together are called the *Corolla.*

THE LILY

PLATE II.



PINK



Miss Lee del.

Illman & Pilbrow Sc

Within the corolla are six thread-like organs which are called the *Stamens*. Each stamen is composed of two parts, one long and slender, called the *Filament;* the other part called the *Anther*, is a kind of knob, like a little box, which when the flower comes to maturity, opens and throws out a coloured dust, called the *Pollen*.

The central organ is called the *Pistil;* this consists of three parts, the top, which is called the *Stigma*, the slender filament which bears the Stigma is called the *Style*, and the base is called the *Germ*.

In many flowers the corolla is surrounded by a kind of cup called the *Calyx*, this is wanting in the Lily, but exists in the Pink.

The *Receptacle*, is the end of the stem where all the other parts of the flower are inserted.

The Germ as it advances to maturity is termed the *Pericarp*, and in this is contained the seed.

These 7 parts constitute what are called the organs of Fructification,* viz.

Calyx,	the cup.	*Pericarp*,	containing the seed.
Corolla,	blossom.	*Seed*,	rudiment of a new plant.
Stamens,	organs within the corolla.	*Receptacle*,	top of the stem.
Pistil,	central organ.		

We have now examined each part of a flower; this is one kind of analysis, or separation, but there is another kind of analysis with which you are now to be made acquainted, viz; that which we employ in finding out the Botanical name of a plant.

DIVISION OF PLANTS INTO CLASSES, &c.

According to the system now most used by botanists, plants are divided into *twenty-one classes*. Each class is divided into Orders, the Orders into Genera,† and the Genera into Species. The name of the Genus and Species of a plant are both important to be known. The name of the Genus is like a family name or surname; the specific name is like the particular or christian name; for example, the Rose is a large family of plants containing many different kinds; as *Rosa alba*, the white rose, *Rosa damascena*, the damask rose, &c.

The specific or individual name in botany, is placed after the family name, as Rosa *alba*, which is Rose white, instead of White rose: this circumstance is probably owing to the names being in Latin; as in that language the adjective is generally placed after the noun instead of before it as in English.

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* From *fructus* fruit and *facio* to make, signifying that those parts serve to the maturing of the fruit.

† Plural of Genus, a family or tribe.

LECTURE III.

Method of analyzing Plants.—Analysis of the Pink and Lily.

When you begin to analyze plants, you will meet with many terms the use of which you do not understand. It will be necessary in these cases to resort to the vocabulary of botanical words; by the observation of plants, connected with definitions, you will soon become familiar with the technical terms of Botany.

We will now proceed to analyze a flower in order to ascertain its botanical name. We will commence with the Pink, as you are provided with a drawing which you can examine if you have no natural flower.*

In the first place we must find the class. We will suppose it to belong to one of the first 10 classes; in this case all you have to do is to ascertain the number of stamens, as by this circumstance only all these classes are arranged.

You find ten stamens, therefore the Pink is in the 10th class, the name of which is *Decandria.*

ANALYSIS OF THE PINK.

Having now ascertained its class, the next step is to find its *order.* In the first 12 classes, the orders depend on the number of pistils, you must then count the pistils. You find *two,* therefore your flower is of the 2d order, the name of which is Digynia.

You must now turn to the description of the Genera of Plants, find class 10th, order 2d.

You have next to compare your plant with each genus, until you find it described. You find first,

Hydrangea. "Calyx 5 toothed, superior;" your calyx is 5 toothed, (see the notches around the top of it,) but it is not *superior,* that is, it does not stand upon the germ: you must go to the next genus.

"Saxifraga. *Calyx* 5 *parted, half superior,*" but your calyx is not half superior, or partly above the germ.—You must go to the next genus.

"Saponaria. *Calyx inferior,* (under the germ;) 1 *leafed,* (all of one piece;) *tubular,* (long and hollow like a tube;) 5 *toothed,*"---so far the description agrees with the Pink; next, "*calyx without scales.*" In this particular your flower does not correspond with the description, therefore you must go the next genus.

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* In analyzing a natural flower, it is necessary to separate the parts; first, if there is a calyx, remove it carefully, then take off the corolla, or if it is monopetalous, cut it open with a knife. A microscope is necessary if the organs are very small.

DIANTHUS. *Calyx inferior, cylindrical,* (much the same as tubular;) 1 *leafed, with four or eight scales at the base; petals five, with claws,* (long and slender at the base;) *capsule cylindrical,* 1 *celled,* (having no partings;) *dehiscent,* (opening at the top.) Your flower agrees exactly with every particular in this description, therefore you may be certain that you have found the true generic or family name of the Pink, which is DIANTHUS.

But there are several individuals or species in this family. You wish to know to what species of Dianthus the Pink belongs. Turn to the *Alphabetical Arrangement of Genera,* here the species are described under each genus; look for Dianthus. Now compare the description of each species with your flower; "*barbatus, flowers fascicled,*" (crowded together.) Your flower grows singly on each stalk. You must look farther; "*armeria, flowers aggregate,*" (in a thick cluster;) this does not agree; "*caryophyllous, flowers solitary, scales of the calyx sub*—(partly)—*rhomboid,*(diamond shape;) *very short, petals crenate,* (scolloped on the edge;) *beardless,* without any hair or down.

Your flower you will see is in all respects answerable to this description. It is also added that the "leaves are *linear,*" which signifies long, and of nearly equal width; "*subulate*" signifies pointed at the end like a shoe maker's awl; "*channelled*" signifies having a groove or channel running through the leaf. Although your drawing gives only a representation of the flower, you no doubt are so familiar with the leaves of the Pink, that you will recognize the description as correct.

You have now found the name of your plant to be DIANTHUS, *caryophyllous.*

Class 10, DECANDRIA. Order 2d, DIGYNIA*.

And in this way it should be labelled for an *herbarium,* or collection of dried plants.

You can now proceed with the analysis of any plant which belongs to the first ten classes, in the same manner as you have done with the Pink; as all these classes depend upon the circumstance of the number of stamens.

ANALYSIS OF THE LILY.

The Lily you will find to be of the 6th class, the name of which is HEXANDRIA, and 1st order, MONOGYNIA. This order containing a great many genera, is divided into several sections. The first, containing flowers "*with a perianth*," (that is a kind of calyx,) and "*corolla without a spatha*," (a kind of wrapper.)

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* The Students can consult the synopsis of artificial classes and orders to ascertain the etymology of their names; the whole system has not been introduced before, because it is thought better to lead them on gradually.

The Lily has no calyx, therefore you will not find it in this section.

2d Section. "*With a spatha or glume*, (a kind of sheath,) *without a perianth*."

The Lily has no spatha or glume, therefore it is not in this section.

3d Section. "*Flowers having no calyx*."

The Lily has *no calyx*, therefore you may expect to find it described under this section. You can proceed, as in the Pink, to compare each genus with your flower, till you find a description which corresponds with the Lily.

"HEMEROCALLIS. *Corolla six parted*." Six parted shows that the corolla is all of one piece, having divisions around the border. The Lily is not six parted, but has six petals, therefore you need look no farther in this genus.

"LILIUM." Now compare each particular in this description with your flower, looking out the terms in the vocabulary, and you will find it to agree in every respect.

You will observe that in the description of a genus, nothing is said about any part of the plant, except the different organs which compose the flower; in the species, the distinctions are chiefly drawn from different circumstances of the leaves, stems, &c.

The flowers of two plants may agree so as to belong to the same genus, while the leaves, stalks and branches are very unlike, and the plants are therefore considered as of different species.

Thus, in the genus Lilium, the shape of the leaves, the manner in which they grow on the stem, the heighth of the stem, the number of flowers growing upon a stem, the manner in which they grow, whether erect or nodding, and the shape of the corolla; all these, and some other circumstances distinguish the different species. The colour, which is a quality of the flower usually the most striking, is, in botany, little regarded, while many other circumstances, which might at first have been scarcely noticed, are considered as important.

LECTURE IV.

Analysis of the Rose and Poppy.

IN the 11th class, Icosandria, and the 12th class, Polyandria, we are to remark not only the number of stamens, which is always more than ten; but the manner in which they *are in-*

serted, or the part of the flower on which they are situated. If in pulling off the corolla, the stamens remain upon the calyx, the plant belongs to the 11th class; but if the corolla and calyx may be both removed, and the stamens still remain on the receptacle, the plant is of the 12th class.

It is said that no poisonous plant has the stamens growing on the calyx, but it is in this class that we find many of our most delicious fruits as the Apple, Pear, &c.

The Rose, on account of its beauty, is one of the most conspicuous flowers in this class, indeed it is considered as one of the most interesting of the vegetable race, and is often dignified with the title of "queen of flowers."

You will at once perceive on examining the formation of the Rose, with a view to learn its class, that its numerous stamens are attached to the calyx. A more perfect idea of their situation may be obtained by removing the petals and cutting the calyx longitudinally. Therefore because it has more than ten stamens growing upon the calyx, it belongs to the 11th class, Icosandria. The pistils being more than ten, it is of the 13th order, Polygynia. It belongs to the first genus described under this order, Rosa.

The shape of the calyx is "*urnform*," the calyx is "*inferior*," or below the germ; it is "*five cleft*," or has five divisions around the border, it is "*five cleft*," or has five divisions around the border, "*it is fleshy*," or thick and pulpy, "*contracted* towards the top;" "*petals* 5," (this is always the case with a rose in its natural state, unassisted by cultivation;) "*seeds numerous, bristly, fixed to the sides of the calyx within*," and is, as the description adds, remarkable for the change of its stamens into petals by rich culture.

There is no seed vessel, or pericarp to the rose; but the calyx itself swells into a berry which is red when ripe. The apple is formed in the same manner, you can at any time at the end of an apple opposite the stem, observe the divisions of the top of the calyx.

The genus Rosa contains many species, distinguished one from another by the different shape of the germ, the smoothness or roughness of the stems, the presence or absence of thorns, the shape of the leaves, and the manner in which the flowers grow upon the stalks, whether solitary or crowded together, in pairs, or scattered, whether erect or drooping.

The Moss rose, ROSA *muscosa*, is distinctly marked by the hairs, resembling moss, which cover the stems of the calyx; these hairs are a collection of glands containing a resinous and fragrant fluid.

The Poppy affords a good illustration of the 12th class, Polyandria; here are numerous stamens, always *more than ten*, sometimes more than a hundred, growing upon the receptacle; the Poppy has but one pistil, and therefore belongs to the first order; Monogynia, of the 12th class, the genus **Papaver**; it has a "*calyx of two leaves*," but these fall off as soon as the blossom expands, and are therefore called "*caducous*," corolla (except when double) "*is four petalled*;" it has no style, but the stigma sits upon the germ, and is therefore said to be *sessile*. The germ is large and somewhat oblong, the stigma is flat and radiated, or sends out rays. The pericarp is one-celled or without divisions, it opens at the top by pores, or little holes when the seeds are ripe.

ANALYSIS OF THE POPPY.

The species of Papaver which is cultivated in gardens, is the *somniferum*, which name signifies, to produce sleep. It is often called Opium Poppy. By observing in your book the figures which stand at the right hand of **Papaver**, you will find to what natural orders the plant belongs. The number 27 points to the natural orders of Linnæus, this is the **Rhæadæa**, which includes plants with capsules and caducous calyxes or siliques (a kind of pod.) Such plants, as to medicinal properties, are *anodyne* (causing sleep,) and *antiscorbutic* (curing eruptions.)

The number 62 points to the natural orders of Jussieu, **Papaveraceæ**, the properties of plants in this natural family are, *narcotic* and *anodyne*, producing sleep.

After you have become familiar with the analysis, and different parts of plants, with their uses, we will give an explanation of these Natural Orders, and the principles by which plants are arranged under them.

In the commencement of a new science, it is not to be expected that every idea, or principle of arrangement will seem perfectly clear to the mind, as these may often relate to other principles not yet explained. In architecture, we know it would be impossible to form a clear idea of the use or beauty of a particular part of an edifice, until it was considered in its relation to the whole. The beginner in any branch of scientific knowledge, is not like one travelling a straight road, where every step is so much ground actually gained; but the views which he takes are like the sketches of a painter, not entirely distinct at first, but gradually brightening and growing more definite as he advances.

The idea which was formerly entertained, that students must learn perfectly as far as they studied in their books, seemed to be founded upon a wrong view both of the nature of the mind, and of the sciences. If to repeat words, were the only object of learning, the rule might be a good one; but words are only valuable as the instrument of conveying knowledge to the mind; and if, occasionally, after careful attention to the subject, something in your lessons may appear obscure, you need not attribute the difficulty to the dulness of your own faculties; it may arise from want of clearness in an author's style, or the subject may be connected with something which is to follow; therefore, you should patiently proceed, with the hope and expectation that difficulties will gradually disappear.

DESCENDING METHOD OF ANALYSIS.

We shall not at present give any more examples of analyzing plants. With even the little practice you have now had, you can analyze flowers of any of the first thirteen classes; but it is necessary for you to know before proceeding farther, that the two circumstances of the *number* and *insertion* of the stamens, are not all that you are to take into consideration, in the arrangement of the classes; this was not sooner observed, that your minds might not be confused at first with too many things. But the most correct way of analyzing plants by the artificial system, is to begin by comparing your flower with the characters of the highest numbered class, and to proceed downwards towards the first class, because the characters of the lower classes are sometimes included in the higher.

In analyzing the Lily you might make the following comparison:

"1. It is not *cryptogamous*, because the stamens and pistils are manifest.
2. It is not *diclinious*, because the stamens and pistils are in the same flower.
3. It is not *gynandrous*, because the stamens do not stand on any part of the pistil.
4. It is not *syngenecious*, for the flower is not compound.
5. It is not *adelphous*, for the filaments are not united.
6. It is not *dynamous*, for two stamens are not uniformly the shortest.
7. It is not *hyperdecandrous*, for the number of the stamens does not exceed ten.
8. It is not *decandrous*, for the number of stamens is not ten.
9. It is *hypodecandrous*, for the number of stamens is under ten.

Having traced it to the proper group of classes, the exact number of stamens settle it in the class Hexandria."*

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* Eaton.

LECTURE V.

Latin and Greek Numerals.—Directions for pronouncing Botanical names.—Artificial Classes and Orders.

We shall now present you with some directions for pronouncing, and also with a list of Latin and Greek numerals, which it is necessary to commit to memory, in order that you may understand the names given to the classes and orders. It is not in Botany alone, that a knowledge of these numerals will be useful to you, very many of the words in our common language are compounded with them; for example; *uniform* from *unus* one, added to form; *octagon,* a figure of *eight sides; hexagon,* of *six sides; pentateuch,* the *five* books of Moses; *decimal,* from *decem,* ten; these very few examples, may show you the importance of knowing these numerals; they will serve as a key to the meaning of words, which otherwise you might be obliged to look out in a dictionary. With respect to commiting to memory, the classes and orders which follow, it will not be necessary to attempt it at present; after having analyzed plants for some time, you will, of course, find the classes and orders imprinted upon your memory.

NUMERALS

TO BE COMMITTED TO MEMORY.

Latin.	*Numbers*	*Greek.*	
Unus.	1.	Monos.	single.
Bis.	2.	Dis.	twice.
Tres.	3.	Treis.	thrice.
Quatuor.	4.	Tettares.	
Quinque.	5.	Pente.	
Sex.	6.	Ex, (pronounced hex.)	
Septem.	7.	Epta, (pronounced hepta.)	
Octo.	8.	Okto.	
Novem.	9.	Ennea.	
Decem.	10.	Deka.	
Undecem.	11.	Endeka.	
Duodecem.	12.	Dodeka.	
Tredecem.	13.	Dekatreis.	
Quatuordecem.	14.	Dekatettares.	
Quindecem.	15.	Dekapente.	
Sexdecem.	16.	Dekaex.	

Septendecem.	17. Dekaepta.
Octodecem.	18. Dekaokto.
Novemdecem.	19. Dekaennea.
Viginti.	20. Eikosi.
Multus.	Many. Polus.

DIRECTIONS

FOR PRONOUNCING THE NAMES OF PLANTS.

BOTANICAL names of plants are formed according to the analogies of the ancient languages, chiefly the Latin. Some of the most common terminations of names of Genera and Species, are the letters *a*, *um*, *us*, and *is*; for example, GERARDIA, TRIFOLIUM, PRUNUS, IRIS; and *virginica*, *candidum*, *blandus*, *officinalis*. A very great proportion of Botanical names terminate in *a*, in which case the *a* has the sound of a in father, as Rosa, Víola, &c.

The letter *e* at the end of a word is always to be sounded; for example, *anemone*, pronounced anem-′o-ne.

The *e* is long before *s* when it ends a word as Bicor′*nes*.

In words that end in *ides*, the *i* is long, as in Hesper′īdes.

The vowels *ae* and *oe* are often used as dipthongs, they have then the sound of *e*, as Hepaticae, pronounced He-pat′i-ce.

Dioecia, pronounced Di-é-cia.

C and *g* as in English, are soft before *e*, *i*, and *y*, and hard before *a*, *o*, and *u*.

The soft sound of *c* is like *s*, the hard sound like *k*.

The soft sound of *g* is like *j*, the hard sound like *g* in the word gave; thus Algae is pronounced Al-je.
Musci Mus-si.

The letters *ch* are hard like *k*, as in Orchis; pronounced Or-kis.

THE CLASSES OF LINNÆUS.

These are founded upon distinctions observed in the STAMENS. According to this system, all known plants are divided into *twenty-one classes.*

The first twelve classes are named by prefixing Greek numerals to ANDRIA, which signifies *stamen.*

CLASSES.

	Names.	*Definitions.*
Number of Stamens.	1. MON-ANDRIA,	One Stamen.
	2. DI-ANDRIA,	Two Stamens.
	3. TRI-ANDRIA,	Three Stamens.
	4. TETR-ANDRIA,	Four Stamens.
	5. PENT-ANDRIA,	Five Stamens.
	6. HEX-ANDRIA,	Six Stamens.
	7. HEPT-ANDRIA,	Seven Stamens.
	8. OCT-ANDRIA,	Eight Stamens.
	9. ENNE-ANDRIA,	Nine Stamens.
	10. DEC-ANDRIA,	Ten Stamens.
Number and position.	11. ICOS-ANDRIA, (Eikosi.) 20	Twenty or more Stamans inserted on the Calyx.
	12. POLY-ANDRIA. (Polus.) many.	Many Stamens inserted on the Receptacle.

The two following classes are named by prefixing Greek numerals, to DYNAMIA, which signifies *power* or length.

Number and relative length.	13. DI-DYNAMIA,	Two Stamens longer or more powerful than the other two.
	14. TETRA-DYNAMIA,	Four Stamens longer or more powerful than the other two.

The two following classes are named by prefixing Greek numerals, to the word ADELPHIA, which signifies *brotherhood.*

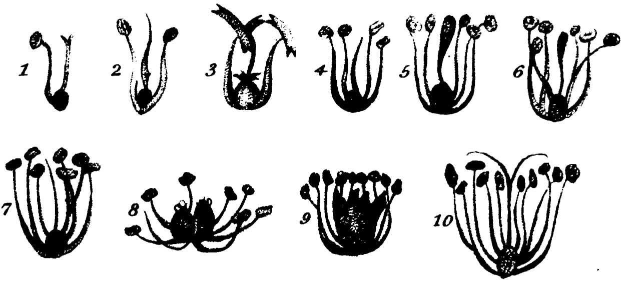
Connexion.	15. MON-ADELPHIA,	Stamens united by their filaments in one set or brotherhood.
	16. DI-ADELPHIA,	Two brotherhoods.

The next class is named by prefixing SYN, signifying together, to GENESIA, which signifies growing up together.

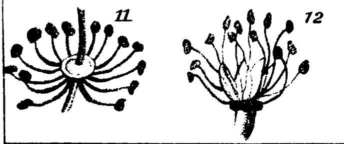
	17. SYN-GENESIA.	Five united anthers, flowers compound.

CLASSES

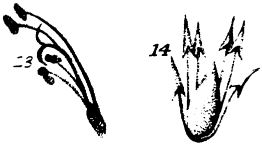
PLATE III.



Number of Stamens



N° & Position



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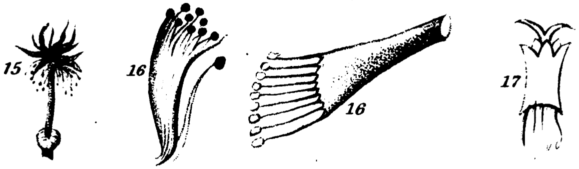
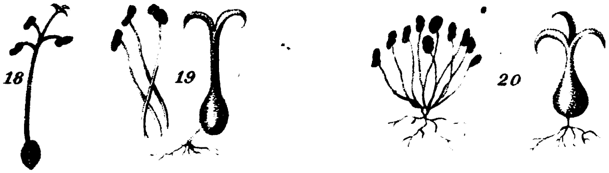
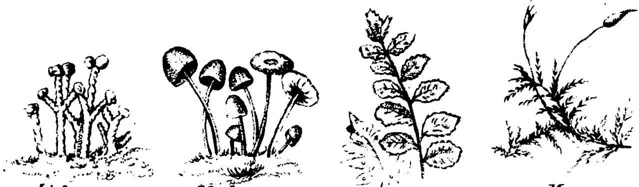


Connexion



Position



Lichens *Mushrooms* *Ferns* *Mosses*

Natural

Miss Lee del. *Illman & Pilbrow sc.*

The next class is named by an abbreviation of the word GYNIA, which signifies pistil, prefixed to ANDRIA, showing that the stamens and pistil are united.

Position.	18. GYN-ANDRIA.	Stamens growing out of the pistil.

The two following classes are named by prefixing numerals to ŒCIA, which signifies a house.

	19. MON-ŒCIA.	Stamens and Pistils on separate corollas, upon the same plant, or one house.
	20. DI-ŒCIA.	Stamens and Pistils, in separate corollas upon different plants or two houses.

The name of the last class is a compound of two Greek words CRYPTO and GAMIA.

Natural.	21. CRYPTO-GAMIA.	Stamens and Pistils invisible, or too small to be seen with the naked eye.

The number of classes as arranged by Linnæus was twenty-four. Two of them Poly-adelphia, (many brotherhoods,) which was the eighteenth class, and Poly-gamia, (many unions) the twenty-third class were rejected as unnecessary.

The eleventh class Dodecandria, which included plants whose flowers contain from twelve to nineteen stamens, has been more recently omitted. The plants which belong to these have been distributed among the other classes.

A few Botanists retain the whole twenty-four; among American writers who adopt but twenty-one, are Eaton, Torrey, and Nuttall.

THE ORDERS OF LINNÆUS.

The orders of the first twelve classes are founded upon the number of styles,* or stigmas if the style is wanting.

The orders are named by prefixing Greek numerals to the word gynia, signifying pistil.

ORDERS.

	Names.	*No. of styles, or stigmas.*
Orders found in the first twelve classes.	1. Mono-gynia,	1.
	2. Di-gynia,	2.
	3. Tri-gynia,	3.
	4. Tetra-gynia,	4.
	5. Penta-gynia,	5.
	6. Hexa-gynia,	6. this order seldom found.
	7. Hepta-gynia,	7. this still more unusual.
	8. Octo-gynia,	8. very rare.
	9. Ennea-gynia,	9. very rare.
	10. Deca-gynia,	10.
	11. Poly-gynia,	11.

The classes vary as to the number of orders which they contain.

The orders of the class Didynamia, are but two.

1. Gymnospermia. seeds usually four lying in the calyx.	From gymno, signifying naked, and spermia, signifying seed, implying that the seeds are not covered.
2. Angio-spermia. seeds numerous in a capsule.	From angio, signifying bag or sack, added to spermia, implying that the seeds are covered.

The orders of the 14th class, Tetradynamia are two, both distinguished by the form of the fruit.

1. Siliculosa. Fruit, a silicula, or *roundish* pod.
2. Siliquosa. Fruit, a siliqua, or *long* pod.

The orders of the 15th class, Monadelphia, and the 16th class, Diadelphia, are founded on the number of stamens, that is, on the characters of the first twelve classes, and have the same names, as Monandria, &c.

The 17th class, Syngenesia, has its five orders distinguished by different circumstances of its florets, as,

1. Equalis.† Stamens and pistils *equal*, or in proportion, that is, each floret is perfect, has a *stamen*, a *pistil*, and one seed.

---

* Style often is used instead of pistil.

† The term Polygamia is omitted on the authority of Nuttall.

2. **Superflua.** Florets of the disk perfect, of the ray containing *only pistils*, which without stamens are *superfluous*.
3. **Frustranea.** Florets of the disk perfect, of the ray neutral, or without the stamen or pistil, therefore *frustrated*, or useless.
4. **Necessaria.** Florets of the disk staminate, of the ray pistillate, the one *necessary* to the perfection of the other.
5. **Segregata.** Florets separated from each other by partial calyxes, or each floret having a perianth.

The orders of the 18th class, Gynandria, of the 19th class, Monœcia, and the 20th class, Diœcia, like the 15th and 16th classes, depend on the number of stamens.

The orders of the 21st class, Cryptogamia, are distinguished into six natural familes.

1. **Filices**,---includes all *Ferns*, the fruit is on the back of the leaves.
2. **Musci**,---Mosses.
3. **Hepaticae**,---Liverworts, or succulent mosses.
4. **Algae**,---Sea-weeds, and frog spittle.
5. **Lichenes**,—Lichens, found growing on the barks of old trees, and on old wood.
6. **Fungi**,---Mushrooms, mould, blight, &c.

Note,---No confusion is produced in thus taking the character of some classes, for orders in other classes; for example: if you have a flower with ten stamens, united by their filaments into one set, you know by the definition of the classes that it belongs to the class Monadelphia, you can then, because it has ten stamens, place it in the order Decandria.

“ SYNOPSIS OF ARTIFICIAL CLASSES AND ORDERS.

	Classes.	Orders.
Number of Stamens.	1. Monandria, 1 stamen. 2. Diandria, 2. 3. Triandria, 3. 4. Tetrandria, 4. 5. Pentandria, 5. 6. Hexandria, 6. 7. Heptandria, 7. 8. Octandria, 8. 9. Enneandria, 9. 10. Decandria, 10.	Number of styles; if styles are wanting, number of sessile stigmas. Monogynia, 1. style or one sessile stigma. Digynia, 2. Trigynia, 3. Tetragynia, 4. Pentagynia, 5. Hexagynia, 6. Heptagynia, 7. Octogynia, 8. Enneagynia, 9. Decagynia, 10. Polygynia, any number over 10.
Number and Position.	11. Icosandria, over 10 stamens, on the calyx. 12. Polyandria, over 10 stamens, not on calyx.	
Number and relative Length.	13. Didynamia, 4 stamens 2 of them longest.	1. Gymnospermia, seeds naked. 2. Angiospermia, seeds in capsules.
	14. Tetradynamia, 6 stamens, 4 of them longest.	1. Siliculosa, pod short. 2. Siliquosa, pod long.
Connexion of the Stamens by filaments or anthers.	15. Monadelphia, filaments united in 1 set. 16. Diadelphia, filaments united in 2 setts—papilionaceous.	Characters and names of preceding classes. As, 1. Monandria, 2. Diandria, 3. Triandria, 4. Tetrandria, 5. Pentandria, 6. Hexandria.
	17. Syngenesia, anthers united—flowers compound.	Disk and ray florets compared. 1. Æqualis, 2. Superflua, 3. Frustranea, 4. Necessaria, 5. Segregata.
Position of the Stamens relative to the Pistils.	18. Gynandria, stamens on the pistil, distant from corolla. 19. Monoecia, stamens in flowers separate from pistils, on the same plant. 20. Dioecia, stamens in flowers separate from pistils on separate plants.	Characters and names of preceding classes, (as under the classes 15 and 16.) 7. Heptandria, 8. Octandria, 9. Enneandria, 10. Decandria, 12. Polyandria, 16. Monadelphia.
Invisible or Caducous.	21. Cryptogamia, stamens invisible, wanting, or very caducous.	Natural families. 1. Filices, 2. Musci, 3. Hepaticae, 4. Algae, 5. Lichenes, 6. Fungi.

LECTURE VI.

Natural orders of Jussieu and Linnaeus.

NATURAL ORDERS OF JUSSIEU.

ACOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS.

Names.	*Examples.*	*Properties.*
1. Fungi.	Mushroom, mould	*Tonic* if dry, *narcotic* if juicy.
2. Algae.	Lichen, conferva.	*Tonic*, some used in *dying*.
3. Hepaticae.	Brook liverwort.	*Tonic, refrigerant.*
4. Musci.	Proper mosses.	*Tonic*, rarely cathartic.
5. Filices.	Brakes, polypod.	*Secernant stimulants.*
6. Naiades.	Duck meat.	*Astringent.*

MONOCOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS.

CLASS I. *Stamens below the pistil.*

Names.	*Examples.*	*Properties.*
7. Aroideae.	Wild turnip.	*Warming stomachic* and *antispasmodic.*
8. Typhae.	Cat tail.	*Weak tonic.*
9. Cyperoideae.	Sedge grass.	*Tonic*, coarse cattle fodder.
10. Gramineae.	Timothy grass.	*Tonic*, *farinaceous*, cattle fodder.

CLASS II. *Stamens surrounding the pistil.*

11. Palmae.	Date, cocoanut.	*Weak tonic, farinaceous.*
12. Asparagi.	Solomon seal.	*Secernant stimulant, mild tonic.*
13. Junci.	Sweet flag.	*Secernant stimulant, antiscorbutic.*
14. Liliaceae.	Tulip, addertongue.	*Emollient*, weak *secernant stimulant.*
15. Bromeliae.	Pine-apple.	*Refrigerant.*
16. Asphodeli.	Onion, hyacinth.	*Expectorant, tonic, cathartic.*
17. Narcissi.	Daffodil.	Weak *tonic, emollient.*
18. Irides.	Iris, blue-eyed-grass.	*Antiscorbutic, tonic.*

CLASS III. *Stamens on the pistil.*

19. Musae.	Bread-tree.	*Tonic.*
20. Cannae.	Ginger.	*Warming stomachic.*
21. Orchideae.	Ladies' slipper.	*Emollient, stomachic, farinaceous.*
22 Hydrocharides.	Tape grass.	*Weak tonic.*

DICOTYLEDONOUS PLANTS.

Section first, Flowers apetalous.

CLASS I. *Stamens on the germ.*

23. Aristolochiae.	Wild ginger.	*Tonic, warming stomachic.*

CLASS II. *Stamens surrounding the germ.*

24. Aeleagni.	Pepperage tree.	*Weak tonic.*
25. Thymeleae.	Leather-wood.	Mild *emetic, antiscorbutic.*
26. Proteae.	Silver tree	Weak *tonic.*
27. Lauri.	Sassafras.	*Secernant stimulant, stomachic.*
28. Polygoneae.	Dock, rhubarb.	Mild *cathartic, antiscorbutic.*
29. Atriplices.	Beet, pokeweed.	*Aperient, cathartic.*

CLASS III. *Stamens below the germ.*

30. Amaranthi.	Cock's comb.	*Weak tonic, secernant stimulant.*
31. Plantaginea.	Plantain.	*Emollient.*
32. Nyctagines.	Four-o-clock.	*Cathartic, emetic.*
33. Plumbagines.	Sea-lavender.	*Cathartic, tonic.*

Section second. Flowers monopetalous.

CLASS IV. *Corollas below the germ.*

34. Lysimachiae.	Loosestrife.	Weak *tonic, secernant stimulant,*
35. Pediculares.	Snakeroot.	*Tonic, cathartic.*
36. Acanthi.	Malabar nut.	*Emollient* weak *tonic.*
37. Jasmineae.	Ash, lilac.	*Tonic, secernant stimulant.*
38. Vitices.	Vervain.	*Deobstruent, secernant stimulant.*
39. Labiatae.	Sage, catnip.	*Secernant stimulant, stomachic tonic.*
40. Scrophulariae.	Foxglove.	*Narcotic, absorbent, deobstruent.*
41. Solaneae.	Red pepper, henbane,	*Narcotic, cathartic, warming stomachic.*
42. Boragineae.	Comfrey.	*Astringent, vulnerary, emollient.*
43. Convolvuli.	Jalap, dodder.	*Cathartic.*
44. Polemonia.	Lichnidia.	*Feeble tonic.*
45. Bignoniae.	Snake-head.	*Cathartic, narcotic.*
46. Gentianae.	Caroline pink.	*Cathartic, tonic.*
47. Apocyneae.	Milkweed.	*Cathartic, narcotic, deobstruent.*
48. Sapotae.	Sour sop.	*Cathartic, antispasmodic.*

CLASS V. *Corollas surrounding the germ.*

49. Guaiacanae.	Lignum vitae.	*Tonic, warming stomachic.*
50. Rhododendra.	Laurel.	*Tonic, narcotic.*
51. Ericae.	Wintergreen.	*Tonic, astringent, refrigerant.*
52. Campanulaceae.	Lobelia.	*Cathartic, emetic, deobstruent.*

CLASS VI. *Corollas on the germ—anthers united.*

Names.	*Examples.*	*Properties.*
53. Cichoraceae.	Lettuce, endive.	*Aperient, mild anodyne.*
54. Cinarocephalae.	Thistle, burdock.	*Tonic*, if nauseous *cathartic*.
55. Corymbiferae.	Boneset, fleabane.	*Tonic, secernant stimulant.*

CLASS VII. *Corollas on the germ—anthers separate.*

56. Dipsaceae.	Button bush, teasel.	*Weak tonic.*
57. Rubiaceae.	Bedstraw, venus pride.	*Weak tonic, aperient.*
58. Caprifolia.	Elder, dogwood.	*Tonic, cathartic* if nauseous.

Section third. Flowers polypetalous.

CLASS VIII. *Stamens on the germ.*

59. Araliae.	Ginseng, spikenard.	*Tonic, expectorant.*
60. Umbelliferae.	Cicuta, fennel.	*Stomachic, narcotic,* if nauseous.

CLASS IX. *Stamens below the germ.*

61. Ranunculaceae.	Crowfoot, gold thread.	*Narcotic, astringent.*
62. Papaveraceae.	Bloodroot, poppy.	*Narcotic, anodyne.*
63. Cruciferae.	Radish, cabbage.	*Emollient stomachic.*
64. Capparides.	Cleome, mignonette.	*Aperient, narcotic* if nauseous.
65. Sapindi.	Soap-berry.	*Emollient.*
66. Acera.	Maple tree.	*Aperient.*
67. Malpighiae.	Barbadoes cherry.	*Aperient.*
68. Hyperica.	John's wort, sundew.	*Tonic, vulnerary.*
69. Guttiferae.	Misseltoe-rose.	*Expectorant, secernant stimulant.*
70. Aurantia.	Orange, lemon.	*Tonic, refrigerant.*
71. Meliae.	Tea.	*Astringent, anodyne.*
72. Vites.	Grape.	*Astringent, refrigerant.*
73. Gerania.	Wood-sorrel, geranium.	*Tonic, refrigerant, narcotic* if nauseous.
74. Malvaceae.	Hollyhock.	*Emollient, aperient.*
75. Magnoliae.	White wood.	*Tonic, aperient.*
76. Annonae.	Custard apple.	*Tonic, aperient.*
77. Menisperma.	Moonseed.	*Feeble narcotic.*
78. Berberides.	Witch hazel.	*Astringent, refrigerant.*
79. Tiliaceae.	Basswood.	*Emollient, aperient.*
80. Cisti.	Rock-rose, violet.	*Tonic.*
81. Rutaceae.	Rue.	*Caustic, narcotic.*
82. Caryophylleae.	Pink, flax.	*Emollient, aperient.*

CLASS X. *Stamens surrounding the germ.*

83. Sempervivae.	Houseleek, live-forever.	*Emollient vulnerary.*
84. Saxifragae.	Saxifrage, currant leaf.	*Tonic.*
85. Cacti.	Prickly pear, currant.	*Refrigerant, emollient, tonic.*
86. Portulacceae.	Purslane.	*Emollient, vulnerary.*
87. Ficoideae.	Ice plant.	*Emollient, refrigerant.*
88. Onagrae.	Scabish.	*Tonic, aperient.*
89. Myrti.	Mock orange.	*Tonic.*
90. Melastomae.	Deer grass.	*Feeble tonic.*
91. Salicariae.	Willow herb.	*Deobstruent, cathartic.*
92. Rosaceae.	Apple, rose, peach.	*Refrigerant, tonic, astringent.*
93. Leguminosae.	Cassia, pea, clover.	*Aperient, emollient.*
94. Terebintaceae.	Sumach, butternut.	*Cathartic, emetic, narcotic.*
95. Rhamni.	Winter berry, jersey tea.	*Cathartic, tonic.*

Section fourth. Diclinious or anomalous.

CLASS XI. *Flowers mostly apetalous.*

96. Euphorbeae.	Castor bean.	*Cathartic*, mild *emetic*.
97. Cucurbitaceae.	Cucumber, melon.	*Cathartic, refrigerant.*
98. Urticae.	Hop, hemp, fig.	*Tonic, anodyne.*
99. Amentaceae.	Oak, willow, elm.	*Astringent, tonic, emollient.*
100. Coniferae.	Pine tree, cedar.	*Expectorant, secernant stimulant*

NATURAL ORDERS OF LINNAEUS.

1. PALMÆ. Palms and their relatives; as Cocoanut, Frog's bit. *Farinaceous diet.*

2. PIPERITÆ. Pepper and its relatives. In crowded spikes; as Indian-turnip, sweet-flag. *Tonics* and *stomachics.*

3. CALAMARIÆ. Reed-like grasses, with culms without joints; as cat-tail, sedge. *Coarse cattle fodder.*

4. GRIMINA. The proper grasses with jointed culms; as Wheat, Rye, Oats, Timothy-grass, Indian-corn. *Farinaceous diet* and *cattle fodder.*

5. TRIPETALOIDEÆ. Corol* 3-petalled or calyx 3-leaved; as Water-plantain, Rush-grass, Arrow-head. *Tonics* and *rough cattle fodder.*

6. ENSATÆ. Liliaceous plants with sword-form leaves; as Iris, Blue-eyed grass, Virginian spiderwort. *Antiscorbutics* and *tonics.*

7. ORCHIDEÆ. With fleshy roots, stamens on the pistils, pollen glutinous, flowers of singular structure with the germ inferior; as Ladies' slipper, Arethusa. *Farinaceous diet* and *stomachics.*

8. SCITAMINEÆ. Liliaceous corols, stems herbaceous, leaves broad, germen blunt-angular; as Ginger, Turmeric. *Warming stomachics.*

9. SPATHACEÆ. Liliaceous plants with spathes;† as Daffodil, Onion, Snow-drop. *Secernant stimulants.*

10. CORONARIÆ. Liliaceous plants without spathes; as Lily, Tulip, Star-grass. The nauseous-scented and bitter are *antiscorbutic* and *cathartic*, the others *Emollient.*

11. SARMENTACEÆ. Liliaceous corols with very weak stems; as Similax, Asparagus, Bellwort. *Tonics* and *Secernant stimulants.*

12. OLERACEÆ, or HOLERACEÆ. Having flowers destitute of beauty, at least of gay colouring; as Beet, Blight, Pig-weed, Dock, Pepperage. If nauseous, *Cathartic;* others, *mild stimulants* and *nutrientics.*

13. SUCCULENTÆ. Plants with very thick succulent leaves; as Prickly-pear, House-leek, Purslane. *Antiscorbutic* and *Emollient.*

14. GRUINALES. Corols with five petals, capsules beaked; as Flax, Wood-sorrel, Cranes-bill. *Tonics* and *Refrigerants.*

15. INUNDATÆ. Growing under water and having flowers destitute of beauty; as Hippuris, Pond-weed. *Astringents.*

16 CALYCIFLORÆ. Plants without corols, with the stamens on the calyx, as Poet's cassia, Seed buckthorn. *Astringents* and *Refrigerents.*

17. CALYCANTHEMÆ. Calyx on the germ or growing to it, flowers beautiful; as Willow-herb, Ludwigia, Œnothera. *Astringents.*

18. BICORNES. Anthers with two straight horns; as Whortleberry, spicy and bitter Winter-green, Laurel. *Astringents.*

19. HESPERIDES. Sweet-scented, leaves evergreen; as Myrtle, Cloves, Mock-orange. *Astringent* and *stomachic.*

20. ROTACEÆ. Corols wheel-form; as Gentian, St. John's wort. *Tonics.*

21. PRECIÆ. Plants with early spring flowers of an elegant, specious appearance; as Primrose. *Astringents.*

22. CARYOPHYLLEÆ. Plants with caryophyllous corols; as Pink, Cockle. *Astringent* and *Secernant stimulants.*

23. TRIHILATÆ. Flowers with 3 stigmas, capsules inflated and winged, and generally three-seeded with distinct hilums; as Nasturtion, Horse-chesnut. *Tonics* and *Nutrientics.*

24. CORYDALES. Corols spurred or anomalous; as Fumatory, Touch-me-not. *Narcotic* and *Antiscorbutic.*

25. PUTAMINEÆ. Plants which bear shell-fruit; as Caperbush. *Detergent* and *Antiscorbutic.*

26. MULTISILIQUÆ. Having several pod-form capsules to each flower; as Columbine, Larkspur, Rue, American cowslip. *Cathartic* and *Caustic.*

27. RHŒADEÆ. Plants with caducous calyxes, and capsule or siliques; as Poppy, Blood-root, Celandine. *Anodyne* and *Antiscorbutic.*

28. LURIDÆ. Corols lurid, mostly monopetalous; flowers Pentandrous, or Didynamous with capsules; as Tobacco, Thorn-apple, Nightshade, Foxglove. *Narcotic* and *Antiscorbutic.*

29. CAMPANACEÆ. Having bell-form corols, or those whose general

* Or corolla.

† Or spathas.

aspect is somewhat bell-form; as Morning-glory, Bell-flower, Violet, Cardinal flower. *Cathartics* and *Secernant stimulants.*

30. CONTORTÆ. Corols twisted or contorted; as Milk-weed, Periwinkle, Choak-dog. *Cathartics* and *Antiscorbutics.*

31. VEPRECULÆ. Having monophyllous calyxes, coloured like corols; as Leatherwood, Thesium. *Antiscorbutic* and *Emetic.*

32. PAPILIONACEÆ. Having papilionaceous flowers; as Peas, Beans, Locust-tree, Clover. *Emollient, Nutrientic.*

33. LOMENTACEÆ. Having legumes or loments, but not perfect papilionaceous flowers; as Cassia, Sensitive plant. *Emollient, Astringent, Cathartic.*

34. CUCURBITACEÆ. Fruit pompion-like, anthers mostly united; as Melons, Cucumbers, Passion-flower. *Cathartic* and *Refrigerant.*

35. SENTICOSÆ. Prickly or hairy, with Polypetalous corols and a number of seeds either naked or slightly covered; as Rose, Raspberry, Strawberry. *Astringent* and *Refrigerant.*

36. POMACEÆ. Having many stamens on the calyx, and drupaceous or pomaceous fruit; as Pear, Currant, Cherry, Peach. *Refrigerants.*

37. COLUMNIFERÆ. Stamens united in the form of a column; as Hollyhock, Mallows, Cotton. *Emollient.*

38. TRICOCCÆ. Having 3-celled capsules; as Castor-oil plant, Spurge, Box. *Cathartic.*

39. SILIQUOSÆ. Having silique pods; as Cabbage, Mustard, Shepherd-purse. *Antiscorbutic, Nutrientic.*

40. PERSONATÆ. Having personate corols; as Snapdragon, Monkey-flower. *Deobstruents* and *Cathartics.*

41. ASPERIFOLIÆ. Corols monopetalous, with 5 stamens, seeds 4, naked, leaves rough; as Comfrey, Stone-seed, (lithospermum.) *Astringents* and *Deobstruents*

42. VERTICILLATÆ. 'Having Labiate flowers; as Sage, Thyme, Catmint, Motherwort. *Stomachics* and *Astringents.*

43. DUMOSÆ. Bushy pithy plants with small flowers, petals in 4 or 5 divisions; as Sumach, Elder, Holly. *Tonic* and *Cathartic.*

44. SEPIARIÆ. Having mostly tubular divided corols with few stamens being ornamental shrubs; as Lilac, Jasmine. *Astringent.*

45. UMBELLATÆ. Flowers in umbels with 5-petalled corols, stamens 5, styles 2, and 2 naked seeds; as Fennel, Dill, Carrot, Poison-hemlock. *Stomachic* and *Narcotic.*

46. HEDERACEÆ. Corols 5-cleft, stamens 5 to 10, fruit berry-like on a compound raceme; as Grape, Ginseng, Spikenard. *Tonics* and *Refrigerants.*

47. STELLATÆ. Corols 4-cleft, stamens 4, seeds 2, naked, leaves mostly whorled; as Bedstraw, Dogwood, Venus' pride. *Tonics* and *Deobstruents.*

48. AGGREGATÆ. Having aggregate flowers; as Button-bush, Marsh-rosemary. *Tonics* and *Secernant stimulants.*

49. COMPOSITÆ. All the compound flowers; as Sun-flower, Boneset, Tansey, Thistle. *Tonics* and *Secernant stimulants.*

50. AMENTACEÆ. Bearing pendent aments; as Hazle, Oak, Chesnut, Willow. *Astringents.*

51. CONIFERÆ. Bearing strobiles; as Pine, Juniper, Cedar. *Tonics* and *Stomachics.*

52. COADUNATÆ. Several berry-like pericarps, which are adnate; as Tulip-tree, Magnolia. *Tonics.*

53. SCABRIDÆ. Leaves rough, flowers destitute of beauty; as Nettle, Hemp, Hop, Elm. *Astringents.*

54. MISCELLANEÆ. Plants not arranged by any particular character; as Pond-lily, Poke-weed, Amaranth. Their qualities are *various.*

55. FILICES. All ferns; as Brakes, Maiden-hair. *Secernant stimulants.*

56 MUSCI. All mosses; as Polytrychum. *Cathartics* and *Secernant stimulants.*

57. ALGÆ. All Liverworts, Lichens and Sea-weeds; as Jungermannia, Fucus, Usnea. *Tonics.*

58. FUNGI. All fungusses; as Mushroom, Toad-stool, Puff-ball, Touchwood, Mould. *Tonics* and *Cathartics.*"*

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* The preceding synopsis of artificial classes and orders, together with the natural orders of Jussieu and Linnæus, are quoted from Eaton, by permission.

LECTURE VII.

Method of analyzing Plants by a series of comparisons.—Subdivisions of the Flower.—General remarks upon Plants.—Method of preserving Plants for an Herbarium.—Poisonous Plants, and those which are not poisonous.

When we dissect a plant, or examine separately each of its organs, this is properly analysis; for the meaning of the word analysis is a separation; but when we speak of finding out plants by analyzing them, we mean something more than examining each part of the flower; this is indeed the first step in the process; but by means of observing these organs, we are to ascertain the Class, Order, Genus, and lastly the Species of the plant. "A person engaged in ascertaining the name of a plant, may be said to be upon a *Botanical Journey*, and the plant being his Directory; if he can read the botanical characters impressed on it by the hand of Nature, he will, by following system, soon arrive at his journey's end."*

In the first place we have *two comparisons* to make.

1st. Whether the *Stamens* and *Pistils* are VISIBLE.

2d. Whether they are INVISIBLE.

If the Stamens and Pistils are not visible, we have already arrived at the class which is CRYPTOGAMIA.

If, however, the *Stamens* and *Pistils* are *visible*, we have now two *comparisons* to make.

1st. Whether the flowers have *Stamens and Pistils together.*

2d. Whether the *Stamens and Pistils* are placed *on different corollas.*

If the Stamens and Pistils are on different flowers, we then shall find our plant either in the class *Dioecia*, or *Monoecia;* according as the Stamens and Pistils are on different flowers, proceeding from the same root, or from different roots.

But if our plant has the Stamens and Pistils both enclosed in the *same corolla*, we must next examine,

1st. Whether the *Anthers* are *separate*, or,

2d. Whether the *Anthers* are *united.*

If we find *five anthers united* around the *pistil*, we have found the class of our plant, it is SYNGENESIA.

If the *Anthers* are separate, we must proceed to a *fourth stage*, and see,

1st. Whether the *filaments* are *separate*, or,

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* Thornton.

2d. Whether the *filaments* are *united* with each *other*, or,

3d. Whether the *filaments* are *united* with the *pistil*.

If the latter circumstance is ascertained, we need search no farther, it is the class GYNANDRIA.

If the flower has not the filaments united to the pistil, we must ascertain if the filaments are united with each other; if they are so, and in two parcels or setts, the flower is in the class DIADELPHIA.

If in *one* parcel or *set*, it is in the class MONADELPHIA.

But if the *filaments* are *separate*, we must next examine,

1st. Whether these are *similar* in length, or,

2d. Whether they are of different lengths.

Of different *lengths*, those only which have *five* or *six stamens* are to be regarded.

If we find our flower has *six stamens*, *four long*, and *two short*, we need go no farther, this is the class TETRADYNAMIA.

If the flower has four stamens, two long, and *two short*, it is in the class DIDYNAMIA.

If our flower comes under none of the foregoing heads, we must then count the number of stamens; if these amount to, *more* than twenty, we must then consider their *insertion*, as,

1st. Whether inserted *on the Calyx or Corolla*, or,

2d. Whether inserted *on the Receptacle*.

If we find the Stamens inserted on the *Receptacle*, the class is POLYANDRIA; but if on the *Calyx* or *Corolla*, it is ICOSANDRIA.

If our flower has less than twenty stamens, with none of the peculiarities above mentioned, of *connexion*, *position*, or *length*, we have only to count the number of stamens in order to be certain of the class; if there are *ten* stamens, it is DECANDRIA; and so on through the nine remaining classes. This is the true analytical process; but when we put plants together to form a species, and species together to form a genus, and genera together to form an order, and orders together to form a class, we then proceed in the way of Synthesis, which means putting together; Analysis means separating.

Although we are soon to enter into a particular consideration of all the parts of a vegetable, both as to its external appearance, and its various offices, and internal operations; it may be well to give, at this time, a view of some subdivisions and different forms, of the Calyx, Corolla, Nectary, and Pericarp.

SUBDIVISIONS OF THE CALYX.

The term Calyx is a generic word including several distinct species; a calyx is said to be *monophyllous*, when it consists of one leaf, *polyphyllous*, when it consists of more than one leaf.

The different kinds of calyxes* are,

1. **Perianth.** The outer covering of a flower, this is the most common kind of calyx, usually green, sometimes coloured,† sometimes caducous,‡ often permanent,|| double in some flowers, wholly wanting in others.
2. **Involucrum.** A calyx remote from the flower, commonly found at the foot of an *umbel*.
3. **Spatha.** A kind of calyx, which first encloses the flower, and after it expands, is left at a distance below it.
4. **Glume.** The outer valves, or husks of corn, or grass, often terminated by a long awn or beard, enclosing one, or more florets.
5. **Ament.** Small chaffy scales arranged, on a slender thread, each scale constituting the calyx of a flower.
6. **Calyptra.** The covering of a moss, placed over it like a cap or bonnet.
7. **Volva.** A membrane which involves a fungus, and after the plant has arrived to maturity contracts, and remains on the stem, or at the root.

DIFFERENT FORMS OF THE COROLLA.§

Corollas consisting of one petal are *monopetalous*, the forms of such are,

1. **Bell-form.** Hollowed out within the base, as the blue bell.
2. **Wheel-form.** With a flat border, and with so little a tube as to resemble a wheel on the ground, as the mullein.
3. **Funnel-form.** The border of the corolla gradually opening in the form of a funnel, and placed upon a tube, as the convolvulus.

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* The plural of *calyx* according to the Latin termination is *calices.*

† As in the Passion flower, Ladies' ear-drop, &c. Green is not considered as a colour in Botany. A calyx that is white is said to be *coloured.*

‡ Falling off, as in the poppy.

|| As in the apple.

§ It is proper here to observe two important facts connected with the descriptions of plants, which are made by references to natural and artificial forms.

1st. A certain number of forms were assumed by Linnæus as standards for references; none of which are to be considered as perfect. But when any one of these forms is referred to, it is to be understood that it is nearer the true form of the organ under consideration, than any other of these standard forms.

2d. All standard forms are either drawn from well known natural bodies, or from artificial bodies, or implements known to the ancients. Some of the most common *natural* bodies are the egg, lips of animals, the throat, head, knee, the heart, the kidneys, the hand, bird's feet, spur, feather, tooth, hair, bristles, silk, down, eye lashes, veins, nerves, wings, ears, claws, &c. Some of the most common *artificial* bodies or implements are a spike, spindle, circle, oval, lance, line, awl, arrow, halbert, viol, lyre, saw, shield, cross, sabre, nee-

4. **Salver-form.** The border flat, proceeding from a tube as the lilac.
5. **Labiate.** Consisting of two parts somewhat resembling the lips of an animal. Labiate corollas are divided into *personate*, with the throat closed, or *ringent* with the throat open.

The forms of Polypetalous Corollas are,

1. **Cruciform.** Having four petals in the form of a cross, as in the turnip.
2. **Tubular.** When the floret of a compound flower ends in a tube, the border being five cleft.
3. **Ligulate.** When the floret of a compound flower is linear or strap like.
4. **Caryophyllous.** Five single petals, each terminating in a long claw, enclosed in a tubular calyx, as the pink, horse-shoe geranium, &c.
5. **Rosaceous.** Petals roundish, spreading, without claws, or very short ones, as the rose.
6. **Liliaceous.** Six petals, spreading gradually from the base, as the lily.
7. **Papilionaceous.** Four petals, consisting of a banner, two wings and a keel, of different shapes and sizes, so arranged as to resemble a butterfly with its wings spread, as the sweet pea.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF NECTARIES.

The *nectary* or that part of the flower which contains the honey, is by some botanists described as a separate organ, by others considered as a subdivision of the corolla. Its most striking forms are,

1. **A Spur or Horn.** As in the larkspur and violet.
2. **Slipper.** As in the ladies'-slipper.
3. **Petal-like.** As in the lily.
4. **Funnel-like.** As in the narcissus.
5. **Hooded.** As in the monks'-hood.

The *Germ* increases after all the other parts of the flower have perished; it then becomes conspicuous, and is called the Pericarp.

The different kinds of Pericarps are,

1. **Capsule.** Opens by valves or pores, and becomes dry when ripe, as the pink and poppy.
2. **Silique.** A kind of pod with a longitudinal partition, the seeds alternately attached to its opposite edges, flowers cruciform, as the radish.

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dle, bell, keel, club, cone, leather, cup, Greek letter *delta*, fork, urn, wheel, &c. See Eaton's Botanical Grammar.

3. **Legume.** A pod without a longitudinal partition, with the seeds attached to one suture only, flowers papilionaceous, as the bean and pea.
4. **Follicle.** Having one valve, opening longitudinally, and having no apparent suture for fastening or attaching the seeds within it, as the milk-weed.
5. **Drupe.** A pulpy pericarp enclosing a nut or stone, as the cherry.
6. **Pome.** A pulpy pericarp not enclosing a stone or nut, in the middle of which are radiated cells for the reception of seeds, as the apple.
7. **Berry.** A pulpy pericarp, having the seeds irregularly dispersed through the pulp, as the strawberry.
8. **Strobilus.** Composed of woody scales, which enclose the seeds.

PARTS OF THE PERICARP.

1, **Valves.** External pieces forming the sides of the seed vessel.
2. **Sutures.** The edges or margins by which the valves are connected.
3. **Column.** A central point of union of the partitions in the seed vessel.
4. **Partitions, or Dissepiments.** The divisions of the seed vessel into cells.
5, **Cells.** Hollow places for the reception of the seeds.

The divisions of the root and stems, the forms of leaves, appendages, and the manner in which the flowers grow upon their stalks, will be particularly noticed as we advance; the vocabulary of terms will also explain what you may not understand as you proceed in the analysis of flowers.

GENERAL FACTS RELATING TO VEGETABLES.

Plants are furnished with pores, by which they imbibe nourishment from surrounding bodies. The part which fixes the plant in the earth, and absorbs from it the juices necessary to vegetation, is the *root*; this organ is never wanting.

The *stem* proceeds from the root, sometimes it creeps upon the earth, or remains concealed in its bosom; but generally the stem ascends either by its own strength, or, as in the case of vines, by supporting itself upon some other body. The divisions of the stem are its *branches*; the division of the branches are its *boughs*. When the vegetable has no stem, the flower and fruit grow from the tops of the root; but when the stem exists, that or its branches bear the leaves, flowers, and fruits. *Herbs* have generally soft, watery stems of short duration, which bear flowers once, and then die.

Trees and *shrubs* have solid and woody stems; they live and bear flowers many years.

Small bodies, of a round or conical form, consisting of thin scales, lying closely compacted together, appear every year upon the stems, the boughs, and the branches of trees. They contain the *germs* of the productions of the following years, and secure them from the severity of the seasons. These germs, and the scales which cover them, are called *buds*. If our organs of sight were sufficiently acute, it is supposed we might distinguish in a bud the innumerable future plants which are enveloped in it, to be brought forward perhaps while the earth shall exist. The buds of the trees and shrubs of equinoctial countries, have few scales, as they are less needed for protection against inclemencies of weather.

Leaves are the lungs of vegetables; they absorb water and carbonic acid from the atmosphere, decompose them by the action of rays of light, and exhale or give out oxygen gas. They are usually connected at the base by a kind of stem called a *petiole*, are sometimes accompanied by *stipules*, appendages similar to little leaves.

Vegetables, like other organized beings, produce others of their kind, and thus perpetuate the works of creation. The organs essential to the perfection of plants, are the stamens and pistils.* Those plants in which the stamens and pistils are manifest, are called *Phenogamous;* where they are rather suspected than demonstrated, they are called *Cryptogamous*. The presence of a stamen and pistil constitutes a perfect flower; but in general these are surrounded with an envelope called the *corolla*, and an outer one called the *calyx*. Persons ignorant of botany give exclusively the name of flower to these envelopes, which are often remarkable for the brilliancy of their colours, the elegance of their forms, and the fragrance of their perfumes.

The stamen, as you have before been told, comprehends three parts, the *Anther*, a little bag which, at a certain stage of the blossom, bursts, and discharges a kind of powder called the *pollen*, When the valves, or the lids of the anthers open, the pollen falls out upon the adjoining part of the flower. The pollen is composed of a great number of organized particles, usually yellow, sometimes white, red, blue, violet, green, &c. which resemble a fine dust. These little bodies differ often in different species of plants. To observe them well, it is necessary to put them on water, the moisture dilating them makes their form manifest. In some species they are oblong, in others globular, in some angular.

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* It seems preferable to form the plural according to the analogy of the English, rather than the Latin; therefore we would say *stamens* rather than *stamina.*

The *Filament* is a thread like substance, which, proceeding from the base of the flower, supports the anther.

The *Pistil*, you will recollect, has three parts: the *Germ*, which contains the embryo plant, the *Style*, a kind of thread proceeding from the germ, and upon the style the *Stigma*, which absorbs the pollen, and conducts it to the germ. The style is sometimes wanting, and in this case the stigma, which is never wanting, is placed upon the germ; the pistil, in most cases, is in the centre of the flower.

METHOD OF PRESERVING PLANTS

AND OF PREPARING AN *herbarium*.

PLANTS collected for analysis, may be preserved fresh for many days in a close tin box, occasionally sprinkling them over with water; they may also be preserved by placing their stems in water, but not as well by the latter, as the former method. While attending to the science of Botany, you should keep specimens of all the plants you can procure. An herbarium neatly arranged is beautiful, and may be rendered highly useful, by affording an opportunity to compare many species together, and it likewise serves to fix in the mind the characters of plants. It is a good method in collecting plants for an herbarium, to have a port-folio or a book in which they may be placed before the parts begin to wilt. Specimens should be placed between the leaves of paper, either newspaper or any other kind which is of a loose texture, and will easily absorb the moisture of the plants. A board should then be placed upon the paper containing them, and a weight laid upon it; the plants should be taken out frequently at first, as often as once or twice a day, and the paper dried, or the plants placed between other dry leaves; small plants may be dried between the leaves of a book.

Plants differ in the length of time required to dry, as they are more or less juicy; some dry in a few days, others not sooner than two or three weeks. When the specimens are dry, and a sufficient number collected to commence an herbarium, a book should be procured, composed of blank paper, (white paper gives the plants a more showy appearance.) A quarto size is more convenient than a larger one; upon the first page of each leaf should be fastened one or more of the dried specimens, either with glue or by means of cutting through the paper, and raising up loops under which the stems may be placed. By the sides of the plants should be written the class, order, generic, and specific name; also, the place where found, and the season of the year. The colours of plants frequently change in drying; the blue, pale red, and white often turn black, or lose their colour; yellow, scarlet, violet, and green, are more durable. An herbarium should be carefully guarded against moisture and insects. Some, as a security against the latter, brush the plants over with corrosive-sublimate.

As a healthful and agreeable exercise, we would recommend to you in summer, frequent botanical excursions; you will experience more pleasure from the science, by seeing the flowers in their own homes; a dry grove of woods, the borders of little streams, the meadows, the pastures, and even the way-sides will afford you constant subjects for botanical observations. To the hardier sex, who can climb mountains, and penetrate marshes, many strange and interesting plants will present themselves, which cannot be found except in their peculiar situations; of these you must be content to obtain specimens, without seeing them in their native wilds. You will no doubt easily obtain such specimens, for there is usually among the cultivators of natural science, a generosity in affording assistance to others, and imparting the treasures which nature lavishes upon those who have a taste to enjoy them.

POISONOUS PLANTS AND THOSE WHICH ARE NOT POISONOUS.

In collecting flowers, you should be cautious with respect to *poisonous* plants. Such as have five stamens and *one pistil*, with a corolla of a dull, lurid colour, and a disagreeable smell, are usually poisonous; the Thorn apple (*Stramonium*) and the Tobacco are examples. The Umbelliferous plants, which grow in *wet* places, have usually a nauseous smell, such plants *are poisonous*, as the Water hemlock. Umbelliferous plants which grow in dry places, usually have an aromatic smell, and *are not poisonous*, as Caraway and Fennel.

Plants with *Labiate* corollas, and containing their seeds in capsules, are often poisonous, as the Foxglove (Digitalis;) also, such as contain a *milky juice*, unless they are compound flowers. Such plants as have horned or hooded nectaries, as the Columbine and Monks-hood, are mostly poisonous.

Among plants which are seldom poisonous, are the compound flowers, as the Dandelion and Boneset; such as have labiate corollas, with seeds lying naked in the calyx, are said never to be poisonous: the Mint and Thyme are examples of such plants. The *Papilionaceous* flowers, as the pea and bean, the *Cruciform*, as the radish and mustard, are seldom found to be poisonous. Such plants as have their stamens standing on the calyx, as the Rose and Apple, are never poisonous, neither the grass like plants with glume calyxes, as Wheat, Rye, and Orchard grass (Dactylis.)

PROPER FLOWERS FOR ANALYSIS.

In selecting flowers for analysis, you must never take double ones; it has been remarked that the stamens (and in many cases the pistils also) change to petals by cultivation, therefore you cannot know by a double flower, how many stamens or pistils belong to it in its natural state. Botanists often view with some degree of indignation, the distortions of nature, as they term it, by means of different modes of cultivation; they call the double flowers and the variegated ones, produced by a mixture of different species, *monsters* and *deformities*. These are rather harsh expressions to be applied to Roses and Carnations, which our taste must lead us to admire as intrinsically beautiful, although their relative beauty, as subservient to scientific illustration, is certainly destroyed by the labour of the gardener. The love of native wild flowers, is no doubt greatly heightened by the habit of seeking them out, and observing them in their peculiar situations; a Botanist will often, at the discovery of some lowly plant, growing by the side of a brook, or almost concealed in the cleft of a rock, experience a more vivid delight than could be produced by a view of the most splendid exotic. Botanical pursuits render us interested in every vegetable production; even such as we before looked upon as useless, present attractions, as objects of scientific investigation, and become associated with the pleasing recollections, arising from the gratification of our love of knowledge.

PART II.

LECTURE VIII.

Importance of observing external objects.—Vegetables consist of two sets of organs.—Of the Root—the Stem.

The exercises which constitute the principal part of our previous course of lectures, are designed, almost wholly, to assist you in practical botany; as it is not expected that you are to be the passive receivers of instruction, but that you are to compare with real objects, the descriptions, with which you are presented; should you do this faithfully, you will find your minds gradually strengthened, and more competent to compare and judge in abstract studies, where the subjects of investigation are in the mind only, and cannot, like the plants, be looked at with the eyes, and handled with the hands.

All our thoughts are, by means of our outward senses, originally derived from external objects. Suppose an infant to exist who could neither hear, see, taste, smell, nor touch; what could it learn? and yet all the embryos of thought, and emotions might exist within it; it might have a soul capable of as high attainments as are within the reach of any created beings; but this soul, while thus imprisoned, without a single avenue by which light might gleam through the dreadful darkness, would gain no ideas; the beauty of reflected light, constituting all the variety of colouring, the harmony of sounds, the fragrant odours of flowers, the sensations of various flavours which are derived from our sense of taste, the ideas of soft, smooth or hard, all these sensations must forever remain unknown to the miserable being whose soul should be confined to a body, unblest with the means of communication with the world around it: such a soul might be compared to the embryo of a plant, which, enclosed within the prison of a seed, would forever remain inert, were no means provided for its escape from this confinement, and a communication opened between it and the air, the light, and the vivifying influence of the earth.

Since our first ideas are derived from external objects, is it not a rational conclusion that we should add to this original stock of knowledge, by a continued observation of objects addressed to our senses? After the years of infancy are past, and we begin to study books, and to attain *what is called learning;* should we then continue to draw upon this little stock of ideas within our minds, or to gain only the ideas of the learned, and throw aside the means by which we have gained our little intellectual wealth? Should we study only into the abstract nature of *modes* and *tenses*, and *active transitive*, and *active intransitive verbs?* The difference between *metaphors* and *similes*, the different forms of *syllogisms*, the distinction between *judgement* and *reason*, *suggestion* and *association* of ideas? Should we devote our thoughts exclusively to these subjects, when the book of nature lies open before us? When objects addressed to our senses are present on every side? This indeed would be to neglect the things that *are seen*, for those which *are invisible;* the reverse of what we do in matters which relate to our immortal destiny. For in this respect, mankind seem often to exclude from their minds the thoughts of the invisible world, in their eagerness to enjoy the present.

Although we recommend so strongly a close attention to natural objects; placing the study of the works of God above that of the inventions of man; we would not be understood as representing the natural sciences as alone worthy of attention; but as believing, that by often refreshing your minds from that fountain of nature, to which you are indebted for all your ideas, you will greatly facilitate your progress in every intellectual pursuit.

We shall now proceed to examine the different parts of a plant.

Vegetables have TWO *kinds of organs*, which serve for very different purposes; the one is to *promote the growth* of the plant, the other to *reproduce the species.*

The roots absorb from the earth nourishment, and the leaves inhale it from the atmosphere; the stems and branches transmit the nutricious juices from the root, to the upper part of the plant, and carry back to the root the nourishment which has been absorbed by the leaves.

The first set of organs includes all herbage, as,

1st. The *Root*, or descending part.

2d. The *Stem* or trunk, which elevates and sustains the branches.

3d. The *Leaves*, which are said to perform offices, similar to the lungs of animals; inhaling nutricious gases, and exhaling what is not needed for the growth of the plant.*

4th. The appendages, such as leafets, or small leaves, thorns, &c.

The second set of organs includes those which serve to perfect the seed; they are called the parts of fructification, as,

1st. The *Calyx*, or outer part of the flower.

2d. The *Corolla*, or coloured blossom within the calyx or inclosing the stamen.

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* Vegetables *inhale carbonic acid* and *exhale oxygen.* Animals require that the air they breathe, should contain oxygen, and they throw off from their lungs carbonic acid; thus plants and animals are made beneficial to each other, in a manner, which science, only, could ascertain.

3d. The *Stamens*, the organs which surround the central one, consisting of mealy or glutinous knobs, usually supported by little threads called filaments.

4th. The *Pistil*, the central organ of the flower, whose base becomes fruit or pericarp.

5th. The *Pericarp*, the covering of the seed, whether pod, shell, bag, or pulpy substance.

6th. The *Seed*, the essential part, which contains the rudiments of a new plant.

7th. The *Receptacle*, the base which sustains the other six parts, being the end of the flower stem.

We shall now consider these organs in the order in which they have been exhibited.

OF THE ROOT.

The *Root* is that part of the vegetable which enters the earth, or other substance to which it may be attached, supporting the plant in an upright position, and at the same time giving nourishment to every part of it. There are some exceptions to the general fact, of a root being fixed in the ground, as there are some plants called *aquatic*, which grow in the water; others called *parasites*, have no root, but fix themselves upon other objects, and derive sustenance from them. The sea-weed is an example of the aquatic, and the misseltoe of the parasitic plants.

The Root consists of two parts, the *Caudex*, or *main body* of the root, and the *Radicle, or fibres;* these are a kind of capillary or hair like tubes, which absorb the nourishment that is conveyed to other parts of the plant.

DURATION OF ROOTS.

Annual—are such as live but one year. They come from the seed in the spring, and die in autumn. Annual plants include such as are raised from the seed every year: as peas, beans, cucumbers, &c.

Biennial plants—are such as live two years. They do not produce any flowers the first season, the next summer they blossom, the seeds mature, and the roots die. The roots of cabbages are often, after the first season, preserved in cellars during the winter. In the spring they are set out in gardens, and produce flowers; the petals of which, in time, fall off, and the germ grows into a pod or silique, which contains the seed. The root having performed this office, then dies, and no process can restore it to life. The onion, the beet, and the carrot are biennial; the flowering is thought to exhaust the vital energy or living principle in the plants.

Perennial plants—are those whose existence is prolonged a number of years: as the asparagus, geranium, and rose; also trees and shrubs. Climate and cultivation affect the duration of the roots of vegetables. Many of the perennial plants become annual by transplanting them into cold climates: the garden nasturtion, originally a perennial shrub in South America, has become in our latitude an annual plant.

It is said that in some cases great care in the culture will prolong the life of annual plants beyond what appears to be their natural term of existence.

FORMS OF ROOTS.

Roots present a multitude of forms: a very general classification of them into *fibrous*, *bulbous*, and *tuberous*, is made by some. Without adopting this arrangement, we shall give one which appears more definite.

There are seven varieties in the forms of roots, which seem mostly distinct: these are the *branching*, *fibrous*, *spindle*, *creeping*, *granulated*, *tuberous*, *and bulbous*.

1st. *Branching*. When the root is subdivided into numerous branches, some of which penetrate deep into the earth, and others creep somewhat horizontally along nearer the surface, but all terminate in fibres.

2d. *The proper Fibrous* root, consists of a collection of thread like parts, as in many kinds of the grasses: if you pull up a handful of the most common grass, you will see that the fibres appear to grow out of the bottom of the stem.

3d. *Spindle Roots*. Large at the top, and tapering downwards, as beets, carrots, and many of the biennial plants. The main body of the root, or the Caudex, abounds with the juices of the plant, and throws out numerous fibres or radicles, which are in reality the proper roots, as they alone imbibe nourishment.

4th. *Creeping*. Those which, instead of forcing themselves downwards into the earth, extend horizontally, and send out fibres.

5th. *Granulated*. Little knobs, strung together, along the sides of a thread-like radical; this form approaches to that of some varieties of the tuberous.

6th. *Tuberous*. This kind of root is hard, solid and fleshy; it consists either of one knob, as in the potato, or of many such knobs, collected by means of a number of slender strings or filaments, into a bunch; as in the artichoke. The radicles or fibrous strings are thus dispersed over every part of the Tuberous root.* The knobs are reser-

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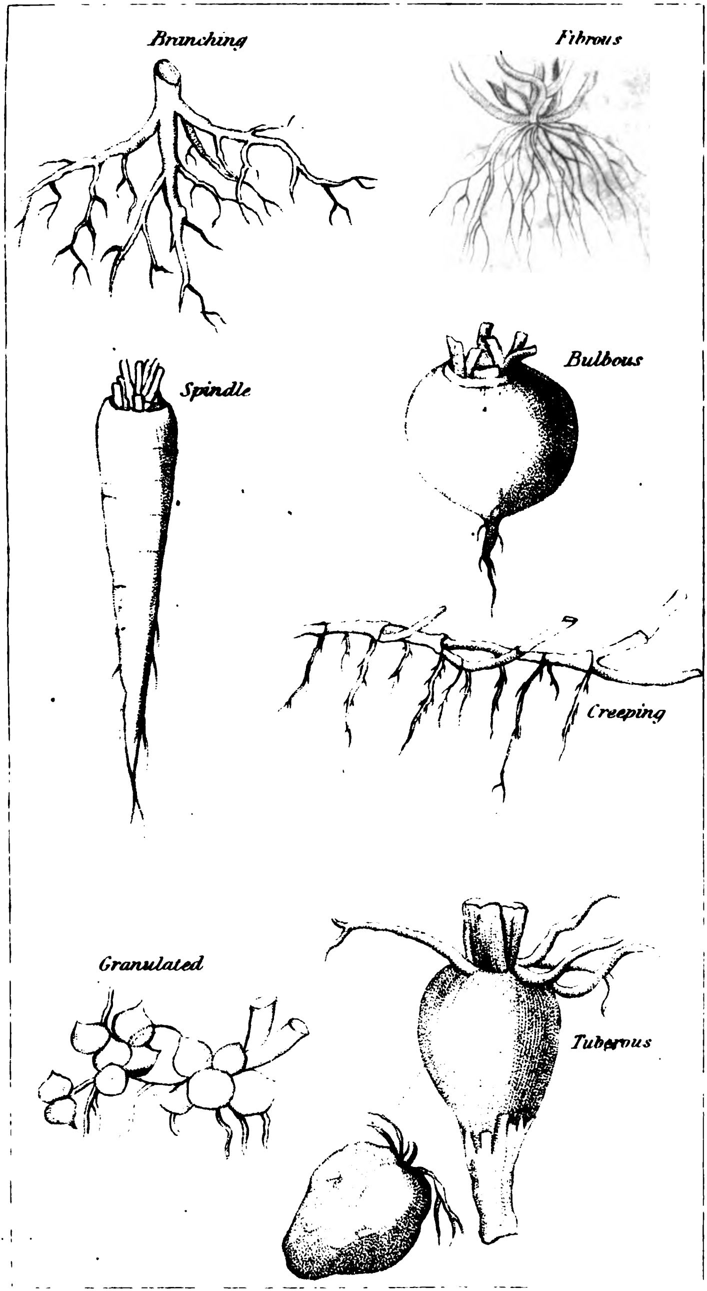
* These fibres are in reality subterranean stems.

ROOTS

PLATE IV.



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voirs, or collections of moisture, nourishment, and vital energy. Tuberous roots are *knobbed*, as the potato; *oval*, as those of the orchis; *abrupt*, when they terminate abruptly, as in the plantain; *fasciculated*, when several are bundled together, as the asparagus and some species of the orchis.

7th. *Bulbous*. A fleshy root of a bulbous or globular form. It seems to be like a large ball placed under ground, to enclose and protect the future plant. Bulbous plants produce some of the earliest flowers of spring, and afford some of the most beautiful ornaments of the garden. Among them are the Hyacinth, the Crown Imperial, the Lily, and Tulip, with a great variety of other splendid and interesting flowers.

The use of the bulb being to preserve the future flower from the effect of cold, we see the bountiful agency of Providence, in the greater number of bulbous plants in cold countries. In warm countries, few plants are furnished with bulbs or winter buds.

The specific character of plants is sometimes taken from the root, and in some cases the specific name; as the SOLANUM *tuberosum*, the potato, and the RANUNCULUS *bulbosus*, the bulbous ranunculus.

The tuberous and bulbous roots distinguish those species from all others of the families Solanum, and Ranunculus.

The forms of roots are so various, that it is impossible to give names to all; even in the same species of plants, the root presents many varieties of form. In the potato, for example; we see some, round and of an even surface, others, long or oval, and some very knobbed and irregular; but yet amidst all this variety there is a prevailing uniformity, and we can usually at one glance distinguish a potato, by its form, from all other vegetables. It might, at first, have appeared as if there could be little interesting in the consideration of roots, which are destitute of that symmetry of parts and liveliness of colouring, which is exhibited in other organs of the plant. Yet you will see, from the view we have now taken of the forms and uses of the root, that inquiries respecting it might be far extended. We find here, as in every part of nature, proofs of a wise Creator, who makes nought

> "In vain, or not for admirable ends."

STEMS AND STALKS.

The trunk or stem is the body of the vegetable; whether it be a tree like the oak, a shrub like the lilac, or an herb like the peppermint or sage; its use is to sustain the branches, leaves, and flowers; and it serves as an organ of communication between them and the root; conducting to the root the nourishment which the other parts of the plant have imbibed from the air, and returning to them the juices which have been absorbed by the root from the earth.

The stems of vegetables, bear in many respects, a striking analogy to the trunks of animals.

The different kinds of stems, or stalks, have been divided into seven classes, as follows:—

Tige, or proper stem, *Culm*, *Scape*, *Peduncle*, *Petiole*, and *Stipe*.

1st. *Tige*,* or proper stem, is such as you see in all trees and shrubs, and in most of those plants which are called herbs, particularly in annual plants. The tige is either simple, as in the White Lily, or branching, as in the Geranium; the branching is the most common form; the name *caulis* is also applied to the stem.

2d. *Culm*, or straw, is the kind of stem which you see in the grasses and rushes. The culm is either *without knots*, as in the Bulrush, *jointed* or *knotted*, as in the Wheat and Indian corn, *geniculated* or bent like an elbow, as in some of the grasses; the two latter divisions are not distinct, for those culms which are bent, are also knotted, though they may be knotted without being bent.

3d. *Scape*, a stalk springing from the root, which bears the flower and fruit, but not the leaves; as the Dandelion, the Cowslip, and the Lily of the Valley. Plants with scapes are sometimes called stemless plants; in this case, the scape would be considered as a peduncle proceeding from the root.

4th. *Peduncle*, a stalk springing from the principal stem, which bears the flower and fruit, but not the leaves; when the peduncle is divided, each subdivision is called a pedicel.†

The peduncle or flower stalk, is,

Cauline, when it grows immediately out of the main stem;
Rameus, or branching when it grows out of a main branch;
Axillary, growing between a leaf and stem, or between a branch and stem;
Terminal, when it terminates a stem or branch;
Lateral, when situated on the side of a stem or branch;
Uni-flora, bearing one flower; bi-flora, two flowers; tri-flora, three flowers;
Multi-flora, bearing many flowers.

When there is no peduncle or flower stalk, the flowers are said to be *sessile*.

5th. *Petiole*. The petiole is a kind of stem, like a fulcrum, supporting the leaf; it is called the foot or leaf stalk. It is usually green, like the leaf, and appears to be a part of the leaf itself. The petiole of many plants is somewhat in the form of a cylinder; but the upper surface is rather flattened, the under surface round or convex. You will find this remark useful, in distinguishing the foot-stalks of compound leaves, from young branches, with which they are sometimes confounded. In most cases, the leaves and flowers are supported by distinct foot-stalks; but sometimes the foot-stalk supports both the leaf and flower.

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* This being a French word, the *i* should be pronounced like *e*, the *g* soft like *j*, as *teje*.

† In determining the species of plants, we often consider the length of the peduncle, compared with the flower: as whether the peduncles are longer or shorter.

The petiole may be,

Terrete, round, as in the Holly-hock;
Semi-terrete, half round, as in the Yellow water-lily;
Compressed, flattened, as the Poplar;
Alatus, winged, or furnished on each side with a leafy appendage;
Cirriferus, having tendrils, as the Pea;
Climbing, performing the office of a tendril, as the CLEMATIS *virginica*.

The Petiole is often, in examining different species of plants, compared with the leaf; as the peduncle is with the flower, with regard to their relative length.

6th. *Frond.* The term Frond, belongs entirely to Cryptogamous plants; it is a kind of stem, in which the leaf and fructification are united; or rather, the flowers and fruit are produced from the leaf itself; as in the Fern. Linnæus considered the palm trees as fronds, as they have not the proper stem of a tree; but they are rather herbs, whose stalks bear the flowers and fruit.

7th. *Stipe*, is the stem or leafless part of a frond, as the stalk of a fungus or mushroom. The term is also applied to the slender thread, which in many of the compound flowers, elevates the hairy crown, with which the seeds are furnished, and connects it with the seed: as in the Lettuce and Dandelion.

After having considered the different kinds of stems, according to the division which most botanical writers have made, we will notice some general circumstances relating to them, without reference to any one of these classes of stalks in particular; although these remarks will be mostly applicable to the Tige or Caulis, which is the most common kind of stem.

The *coherence, or hardness* of stems has given rise to the following distinctions.

Herbaceous, having a tender substance, which usually dies every year; in some cases when the root lives more than one year, the stem is annual; as in the tulip, *Woody*, as in the oak, *Solid*, like the box, *Pithy*, as the elder, *Hollow*, as in the onion, *Corky* as in the cork, or *Pulpy*, as in the cactus or prickly pear.

The stem with respect to its *direction*, or *mode* of *growth*, is

Perpendicular, or erect, forming a right angle with the ground, as the Pink;
Procumbent, lying down;
Oblique, when it is neither perpendicular nor horizontal;
Creeping, as one species of Ranunculus;
Reclining, curved towards the ground as the Blackberry;

Radical, clinging to some other body for support, by means of fibres which do not imbibe nourishment; as the common Creeper;
Climbing, either with spiral tendrils for its support, as the Vine, or by adhesive fibres;
Twining, winding in a spiral manner around other plants, as the Hop;
Trailing, a creeping stem destitute of flowers, thrown out from the root and giving rise to another plant where it takes root, as the Strawberry.

Stems as to *shape*, are,

Terrete or *cylindrical*, long and round; as in the rose and lilac, and in most of the woody and herbaceous plants;
Compressed, more or less flattened on the sides;
Anceps, two edged;
Triangular, three edged;
Quadrangular, square;
Pentagonous, five sided. If the number of angles is either variable, or more than five, the stem is said to be *angulosus*, or angled.

The *surface* of the stem may be,

Glabrous, smooth, destitute of hairs or glands;
Polished, the surface equal and smooth;
Pubescent, covered with hair, or glands resembling hairs;
Villose, shaggy, covered with long soft hairs;
Pilose, hairs long and distinct;
Tomentose, hairs short and closely matted together, like cotton or down;
Hispid, bristly, hairs stiff;
Scaly, covered with membranous scales;
Imbricated, stem concealed by leaves, which sit close like shingles on the roof of a house;
Viscid, covered with a clammy juice;
Papillose, covered with soft points or tubercles;
Scabrous, rough to the touch;
Hoary, as if frosted;
Mealy, (glaucus,) of a sea green mealiness, which easily rubs off;
Striated, marked with parallel longitudinal lines.

The Stem with respect to Divisions and Composition.

The stem is either *simple*, or *divided* into branches. The branches are parts of the plant which proceed immediately from the trunk; the divisions of the branches are called branchlets; a diminutive appellation, which means a little branch. These parts resemble, in their formation, the trunk or stem, which furnishes them; the branch may be considered as a tree, implanted upon another tree of the same species. There are many other terms which are applied to stems and branches; but as a very long list of them would be uninteresting, and not easily remembered, we prefer that you should learn them by turning to the dictionary of botanical terms, as you meet with those with which you are unacquainted.

LECTURE IX.

OF BUDS AND LEAVES.

The manner in which *Buds* spring from the parent stock, gradually unfolding themselves, until they become in their turn branches, covered with leaves and flowers, cannot fail to impress your minds with a sense of the goodness of that great Being, who watches with unceasing care over his vast creation. The infant, whose frail thread of life, the slightest accident might break, is preserved amidst dangers seen and unseen; and his physical and mental powers are gradually developed, until arrived at maturity, his body is strong and active, and his mind can think upon the wonderful works of God. In the buds of a plant the physical change is thus going on; but the bud although it is active with the principle of life, knows not its own existence; neither is the parent branch endowed with consciousness, or capable of being delighted with its offspring. Thus, while we see so much to admire in the vegetable economy, we feel, that plants, in being destitute of mind, seem to want all of existence that is truly desirable. The tender sympathies arising from affinity, wholly wanting in the vegetable world, and feebly evinced by the brute creation, are bestowed in a high degree upon man.

It is delightful, while gratifying our natural love of knowledge, by inquiring into the economy of nature, to be thus met at every step, with new proofs of the goodness and wisdom of the Author of Nature, particularly as manifested towards the human race. To discover the character of the Deity, should indeed, be the end and aim of all knowledge; and even should an occasional digression from the subject of your present study, retard your progress in Botanical investigations, the loss would be slight, compared to the gain of one pious and devout aspiration of the heart.

When we become so deeply engaged in philosophical speculations, as to forget Him whose works we study, we have wandered far from the path of true knowledge. It was not thus that Newton studied the laws of matter; or Locke and Watts the laws of mind; or Paley the animal and vegetable physiology; these great and good men, made their rich treasures of knowledge subservient to one great design, that of illustrating the character of God, and teaching us our duty to Him.

To return to the subject of our lecture; buds may be considered as the winter residence of leaves and flowers, covered by scales to protect them from the cold. These scales envelope each other closely; the exterior ones are dry and hard, the interior moist and covered with down; they are also furnished with a kind of resin or balsam, which prevents the embryo from being injured by too much moisture.

These scales are so compact, that buds, taken from trees and covered with resin, have been kept for years in water, without injury to the infant plant or branch. The buds of the trees in the torrid zone are said to be destitute of scales; but in cold climates, there are few trees or shrubs, the buds of which are not thus defended from the cold. In the northern part of the United States, there are few trees which can endure the cold weather without this security. In Sweden, it is said there is but one shrub destitute of buds; and that from the peculiarity of its situation, is always protected from the inclemencies of winter.*

In warmer climates, the tender shoots do not require this protection; and we find that the orange and lemon, and other tropical plants are not provided with it. It is said, that none but plants furnished with scaly buds, can live in climates where it snows a part of the year; the trees of the torrid zone, the wood of which appears hard and firm, perish in our climate in a short time.

There are three kinds of buds.

1st. *The Flower bud*, which is of a short round form. It contains the rudiments of one or several flowers, without leaves, folded over each and surrounded with scales. It is often found at the extremity of small short branches; this is the kind of bud which is employed in grafting or innoculating. This operation is performed by cutting into the bark of another tree, and placing a bud or several buds in the aperture.

2d. *The Leaf bud*, contains the rudiments of several leaves without flowers; it is usually longer and more pointed than the flower bud.

3d. *Leaf and Flower bud*, containing both leaves and flowers. In the peach we have examples of the two first divisions; the leaf and flower bud being distinct. In the lilac they are enclosed together in the same bud.

The leaf buds, if taken from the tree and planted in the earth, will grow and put forth roots; but the flower buds in the same situation will perish.

Bulbs, or bulbous roots, are considered as a kind of subterranean bud; and when we see a bud, which has been placed in the earth, growing up, and sending forth roots, we perceive an analogy between it and a bulbous root, which goes through with the same process.

Buds are also considered as analogous to seeds; some plants produce besides these, which have been mentioned, a set of buds or bulbs, which are destined to re-produce the species, by vegetating in the earth. A species of the onion, called sometimes the *magic onion*, is an example of this; the bulbs or onions grow upon the stalk in clusters of four or five, and they continue to enlarge until their weight brings them to the ground; where, if not prevented, they take root. This species is called a *viviparous* plant, or one which produces its offspring alive. Such plants as produce seeds, or such animals as produce their young from eggs, are called *oviparous*.

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* A species of the *Rhamnus* which grows under trees in the marshy forests.

It is thought that buds derive their origin from the pith of the vegetable; as it has been ascertained that the pith is necessary to their existence and growth. Buds usually appear upon the stalk of plants, at the place where the leaf is united to the stem; or at the base of the leaf stalk, just above the place of insertion. You have, no doubt, observed in the spring, the rapid growth of the leaves and branches of trees; and perhaps, have also noticed, that as summer advances, the progress of vegetation seems almost to cease, and that new leaves and branches do not come forth as before; but you may not have known, that instead of resting in her operations, nature is now busy in providing for the next year; she is turning the vital energies of the plants to the formation of buds. Those little embryo plants, so nicely wrapped up in downy scales as to be able to bear the coldness of winter; in the ensuing spring they will come forth from their snug retreats, and taking the places of the leaves which had withered in autumn, will delight us with new verdure and beauty.

The poet Cowper has the following lines on the formation of buds; they evince that character of piety which distinguishes this excellent man, in all his writings:

"When all this uniform uncoloured scene,
Shall be dismantled of its fleecy load,
And flush into variety again,
From dearth to plenty, and from death to life,
Is Nature's progress, when she lectures man
In heavenly truth; evincing, as she makes
The grand transition, that there lives and works
A soul in all things, and that soul is God.
He sets the bright procession on its way,
And marshals all the order of the year;
He marks the bounds which winter may not pass,
And blunts his pointed fury; in its case
Russet and rude, folds up the tender germ,
Uninjured, with inimitable art;
And ere one flowery season fades and dies,
Designs the blooming wonders of the next."

OF LEAVES.

You all know what is meant by the leaf of a vegetable; but were you called on to give a definition of the term leaf, you might find it more difficult than at first you would imagine. Young persons are often disconcerted, when asked by their teachers to explain some word, of which they have an idea, and yet find themselves unable to give a definition; but although, the pupil may be surprised at this fact, it is not unaccountable, to those who know, that although we may have the picture of an object in the mind, it is not always easy to convey our conceptions to the minds of others. To give correct definitions of terms, is one of the greatest difficulties in science. The manner in which persons describe objects, will vary with the degree of knowledge respecting the properties of the object. For example; a person attempting to describe common salt, if he knew nothing more of it than his unassisted senses had informed him, he would speak of its colour and taste, and other obvious properties; one, familiar with the principles of Chemistry, would first speak of the materials which compose salt; he would describe it as a compound substance, consisting of soda and muriatic acid; and then might enumerate its properties. In the first definition, given without any reference to scientific principles, there is nothing so definite, as to afford a certain mark of distinction between salt and other substances; in the chemical definition, we have a test for salt in a knowledge of its compounds, which distinguishes it from all other substances.

In botanical definitions, we do not include the constituent elements of the vegetable substance; this belongs to the department of Chemistry, but we consider the external forms and uses of the various parts of the plant.

In defining a leaf, we will give a general definition of its outward appearance, and then consider some of its uses as connected with the whole plant. You must observe here, that we must give as general a definition as possible. The leaf in its external form, is a thin flat substance, usually* of a green colour, and appearing to be a continuation of the bark.

One of the most important circumstances respecting leaves is that they present a more extended surface to the atmosphere, than all other parts of the plant. This renders them of great utility to the vegetable, as they imbibe from the air such gases as are needed for the nourishment of the plant, and throw into the atmosphere such substances as would be useless or hurtful to it. We have seen how the bud is formed, and by what curious means the principle of vegetable life which it contains is preserved and protected through the cold and dampness of winter. In the spring, when the sun having performed his journey to the southern tropic, has turned his course towards the north, re-crossed the equator, and is advancing towards the tropic of Cancer, the vegetable world, which had for months lain dormant, begins to awaken; "at the soft call of spring," the leaf buds expand, and soon bursting their envelopes, the green leaves come forth. The manner in which the leaf, before it expands, lies wrapped up in the scales of the bud, is called the *Foliation;* this presents an interesting study, and is said to be sufficiently various, in different families of plants, to afford a mark of distinction between them.

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* We say *usually*, for there are some leaves which are not green, as the side-saddle flower, (*Sarracenia*) and some kinds of dock, (*Rumex.*)

In the buds of grasses the leaves are said to be *rolled* together; in the rose, one side of the leaf is *doubled* upon the stem; in the maple, the leaves are *plaited* or folded up like a fan; in the blue bell, *imbricated*, or laid over one another, like tiles on the roof of a house; in the monk's hood they are *bent downwards* towards the petiole.

Some plants are destitute of leaves; they are then called *Aphyllous*, which term signifies *wanting leaves*.

The leaf is usually attached to the plant by a short stalk, called the *petiole;* when this is wanting the leaf is said to be *sessile*, or sitting down.

The upper side of a leaf is often of a deeper green than the under side. Those leaves which live through the winter, are called *evergreen*, such as fall off in autumn, *deciduous*.

Leaves are either *simple*, as when one leaf grows on one petiole, or *compound*, as when several leafets grow on one petiole.

In determininig the species of plants, the leaves are much regarded; specific names are often given from some circumstance of the leaf, for example: the HEPATICA *triloba* is that species of the Hepatica, which has leaves with three divisions called lobes; the VIOLA *rotundifolia* is a species of violet with round leaves.

A knowledge of the various appearances presented by leaves, is of great importance; in order to become acquainted with all their varieties, considerable practice in the analysis of plants is necessary. Plates will assist you in understanding the definitions, but you must chiefly consult nature. There are probably more than a hundred terms used to express the varieties observable in leaves; we shall here explain some of the most important distinctions.

1st. *Leaves considered with regard to the manner in which they succeed each other in different stages of the plant.*

1. *Seminal*, leaves which come up with the plant when it first appears above the surface of the earth: as in the garden bean; these leaves are only the cotyledons or sides of the seed, which, after nourishing the young plant, decay.
2. *Primordial*, leaves growing immediately after the seminal leaves, and resembling them in position, form, and size. The primordial leaf, according to the fanciful idea of a French botanist, is a sketch which nature makes before the perfection of her work.
3. *Characteristic* leaves are those which are found in the mature state of the plant; or according to the idea above advanced, nature in them perfects her design.

It is not always, however, that this process with regard to change of leaves takes place; as in many cases the proper, or characteristic leaf, is the only one which appears.

Leaves, with respect to *insertion*, are,

Radical, from Radix, the root, such leaves as spring from the root, as the Dandelion.

Cauline, from Caulis, the stem, growing out of the stem.

Floral, growing near to the flower, sometimes called bracts.

Branch leaves, growing on the branches.

Peltate, when the foot stalk, or petiole, is inserted into the middle of a leaf, like the arm of a man holding a shield.

Sessile leaves having no foot stalk, sitting down.

Amplexicaul, leaves clasping the stem with their base.

Connate, united at their base.

Perfoliate, when the stem passes through the leaf.

Imbricated, lying one over another, like the shingles of a house.

Scattered, situated irregularly, without any apparent order.

With respect to *situation* and *position*.

Alternate, growing on different parts of the stem, observing equal distance.

Opposite, growing on opposite parts of the stem.

Decussate, crossing each other alternately in pairs.

Verticillate, whorled or stellate growing in a circle round the stem.

Fascicled, growing in a kind of bunch together.

Clustered, crowded together.

Crowned, a tuft of leaves at the summit of the stem.

Binate, only two leaves upon a stem.

Ternate, three leaves upon a stem.

Quarternate, four leaves upon a stem.

Unilateral, bearing all to one side.

Appressed, when the leaf takes a direction parallel to the stem, and touches it in its whole direction.

Reclinate, inclining downwards.

Recurved, curved backwards.

Inflexed, curved inwards.

Oblique, twisted.

Resupinate, upper surface turned downwards.

Natant, swimming on the surface of the water.

Submersed, plunged under water.

Emerged, raised above water.

Leaves, with respect to *form*, are,

Simple, undivided, as in the Lily.

Compound, when several leaves grow on one petiole, as in the Rose.

The leafets of compound leaves are like the simple leaves, distinguished by their peculiar form.

Orbicular, or round leaves, are seldom seen; if they are nearly round, they are said to be *Sub-orbicular*.

Ovate, the shape of an egg cut lengthwise, the base being rounder and broader than the extremity.

Obovate, with the narrowest end towards the stem.

Oval, an oval leaf, with both ends of the same breadth.

Oblong, the length about three or four times more than the breadth.

Spatulate, of a roundish figure, tapering into an oblong base.

Lanceolate, long and tapering, like an ancient lance.

Linear, narrow, nearly of the same width through the whole length, like many of the grasses.

Subulate, or awl form, narrow and curved at the point like a shoe maker's awl.

Angled, when the exact number of angles is not determined.

Trianglar, or Deltoid, three angles.

Rhomboid, or Diamond-shape, four angles.

Leaves, with respect to *composition*, are,

Digitate, like fingers, when several leafets arise from the summit of a simple petiole; as in the Horse Chesnut.

Binate, or Conjugate, when the number of leafets is two.
Ternate, when the number is three.
Pinnate, when several leafets arise from the side of a petiole: as in the Rose and Locust.

The *Summit* of leaves may be

Acute, as in the willow, or,
Acuminate, which is still more slender and pointed.
Obtuse, when it is blunt or rounded.
Truncate, when the leaf seems to have been cut off.
Mucronate, when the extremity of a leaf has a sharp point like a bristle.

The *Margins* of leaves, are,

Entire, when the margin has no teeth or notches of any kind, as in the Lily.
Spinose, or prickly, as in the Thistle.
Ciliate, or fringed with hairs.
Dentate, having notches like teeth.
Serrate, having teeth like a saw, all pointing towards the summit of the leaf.

The *Surfaces* of leaves are also very different, they are,

Hairy, having distinct strait hairs.
Downy, covered with fine cotton-like down.
Silky, covered with soft close-pressed hairs.
Bristly, having stiff hairs.
Nerved, fibres running from the base to the point.
Veined, having fibres variously branched.
Punctate, or dotted, appearing, when held to the light, as if pricked with a pin.
Plaited, folded like a fan.
Coloured, this term is applied to all leaves that are not green, as the Beet.

LEAVES WITH RESPECT TO MAGNITUDE.

Leaves vary in size, from the small leaves of some of the forest-trees of our climate, to the spreading Palms and Bananas of the torrid zone. As we approach the torrid zone, the leaves seem to increase in magnitude; we can, however, scarcely credit the reports of travellers, who say, that the Talipot tree, in the island of Ceylon, produces leaves of such size, that twenty persons may be sheltered by one single leaf. Although this account may be exaggerated, there is no doubt of the general fact, that the leaves of the torrid zone are of a wonderful size. And here we see the care of that ever kind providence, which, in countries parched the greater part of the year by a vertical sun, has formed such refreshing shelters. Whole families are said to make their habitations under the branches of these trees.

Leaves, with respect to *Duration*, are,

Caducous, such as fall before the end of summer.
Deciduous, falling at the commencement of winter, this is the case with most vegetables, as far as 30° or 40° from the equator.
Persistent, or permanent, remaining on the trees amidst the changes of temperature: as in the leaves of the pine and box.
Evergreen, preserving their greenness through the year: as the fir-tree and pine, and generally all cone-bearing and resinous trees.

In our climate the leaves are mostly deciduous, returning in the autumn to their original dust, and enriching the soil from which they had derived their nourishment. In the regions of the torrid zone, the leaves are mostly persistent and evergreen; it is said they seldom fade or decay in a less time than six years; but these same trees, removed to our climate, sometimes become annual plants, losing their foliage every year. The Passion flower is an evergreen in a more northern climate.

Leaves with respect to *Colour*.

Leaves have not that brilliancy of colour which is seen in the corolla or blossom; but the beauty of the corolla, like most other external beauty, has but a transient existence; while the less showy leaf remains fresh and verdant, after the flower has withered away.

The substance of leaves is so constituted as to absorb all the rays of light, except green; this colour, the only one, with a very few exceptions, which leaves reflect, is, of all others, best adapted to the extreme sensibility of our organs of sight. Thus, in evident accommodation to our capacities, the ordinary dress of nature is of the only colour upon which our eyes can for any length of time rest without pain.

A small quantity of iron, united to oxygen in the vegetable substance, and acted upon by rays of light, is said to give rise to the various colours of plants.* If this theory is correct, the different shades of colour in plants, must be owing to the different proportions in which the iron and oxygen are combined.

To quote the words of a celebrated Chemist, "When Nature takes her pencil, iron is the colouring she always uses."

The manner in which leaves reflect rays of light, gives rise to a variety of shades in their colour; from the light green of the birch, to the dark shade of the yew tree, and the pine. The contrast between these various shades, in forests, where different families of trees are grouped together, has the effect, when remarked at such a distance, as to give a view of the whole in a mass.

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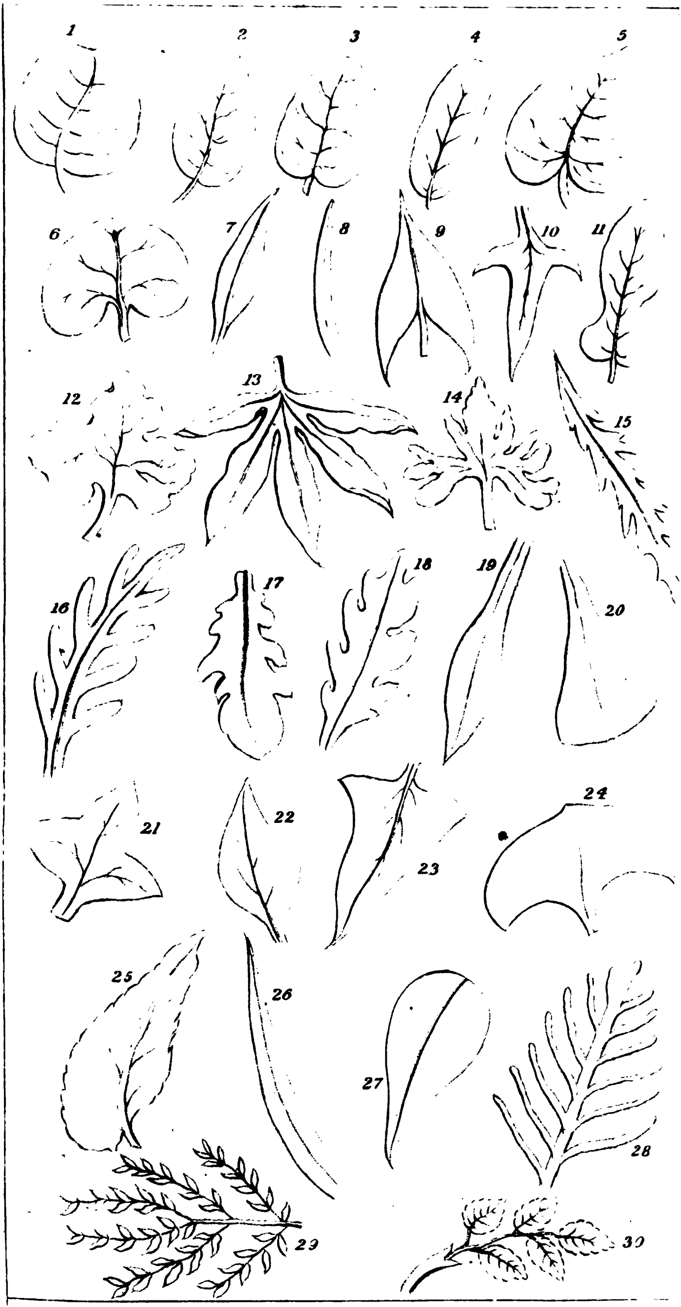
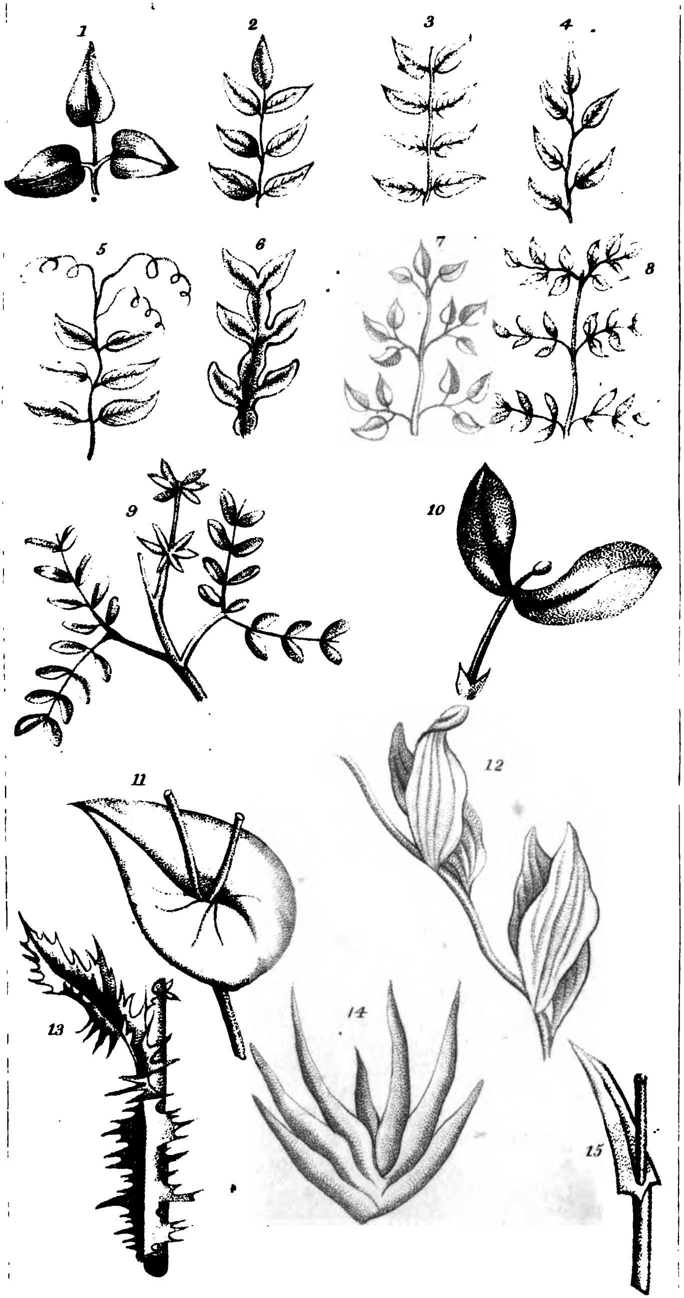
* This idea coincides with the supposition, that the green colour of leaves is changed to brown by the loss of an acid principle; that when the petals of flowers turn from purple to red, they have an increase of an acid. The base of this acid is *oxygen*.

LEAVES.



Miss Lee del. Illman & Pilbrow Sc.

PLATE VI.



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EXPLANATION OF PLATE V.

1. Orbicular—2. Ovate—3. Oval—4. Oblong—5. Cordate—6. Kidney-form—7. Lanceolate—8. Linear—9. Arrow-form—10. Halbert-form—11. Guitar-form—12. Lobed—13. Palmate—14. Pedate—15. Runcinate—16. Pinnatifid—17. Lyrate—18. Sinuate—19. Spatulate—20. Wedge-form—21. Triangular—22. Diamond-form—23. Trowel-shaped—24. Crescent-form—25. Oblique—26. Acuminate—27. Obovate—28. Pectinate—29 & 30. Pinnate.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE VI.

1. Ternate—2. Winged, terminated by an odd one—3. Abruptly—4. Alternately—5. Tendrilled—6. Jointedly—7. Doubly 3 leaved—8. Doubly winged—9. Alienated—10. Binate—11. Perfoliate—12. Unilateral—13 Decurrent—14. Equitant—15. Sheathing.

LECTURE X.

Anatomy of Leaves.—Their use in the Vegetable System.—Appendages to plants.

Leaves are compared to the lungs of animals; they are organs for *respiring*, *perspiring*, and *absorbing*. When leaves are wanting, as in the Prickly Pear, (*Cactus*,) the green surface of the stem appears to perform the office of leaves. If you will observe a dead leaf which has for some time been exposed to the action of the atmosphere, (in autumn, these dead, dry leaves present themselves on all sides,) you may see the *skeleton, or frame-work* of the leaf; this consists of various branches, minutely subdivided, which originate from the petiole. This skeleton of the leaf may be examined to advantage, after boiling the leaves slightly, or rubbing them in water, the *cuticle* or skin easily separates, and the pulp may then be washed out from between the meshes of the veined net-work; thus the most minute cords of the different vessels become perceptible, with their various divisions and subdivisions; and the whole, forming what is called the *vascular* system, may be distinctly traced.

It would be extending our researches beyond our proper limits, to attempt to follow the writers who have remarked upon the peculiar offices of these organs; in external appearance, they are analogous to the bones which constitute the foundation of the animal system, but they are considered as performing the office of veins or arteries. They are found to be tubes; in some cases, this is ascertained by the naked eye; in others, beautifully illustrated by immersing the fibres of the leaf (prepared in the manner just described) into some coloured liquid; on taking it out, the fibres are found to contain internally a portion of the liquid; this experiment proves them to be both *tubular* and *transparent*.

The covering of this frame-work of the leaf is first, a pulpy substance, called the *parenchyma* or *cellular* system. Some leaves contain much more of this than others, that is, they are more pulpy and juicy; it is found, as its name *cellular* would denote, to consist of a mass of little cells, various in size in different leaves; in some, with the most powerful magnifiers, the cells are scarcely perceptible; in others, they may be seen with the naked eye. These cells are supposed to be of important use, in the secretions and communication of substances through the leaf; and have thus been considered as a kind of glands, having a communication with the vascular system.

The covering of the leaf, or the skin, is called the *cuticle*, or *epidermis*; this guards the vascular and cellular system from injury, and is the medium, by which the leaf performs the important functions of absorbing nourishment, and throwing off such substances as are useless or hurtful. The cuticle is sometimes covered with downy or hairy glands, which seem to afford security against changes of weather; such plants are capable of enduring a greater degree of heat than others. The cuticle is often covered with a transparent varnish, which is very important, in preserving the plant from injury by too much moisture; adding also to its beauty. The trees of Abyssinia and some other countries, which are subject to long rains, and continued moisture, are found to be in this way shielded from the injurious effects of the weather.

Some of the uses of Leaves.

The leaves perform a very important office, in sheltering and protecting the flowers and fruit; the fact of their inspiring or absorbing air, is thought to have been proved, by placing a plant under an exhausted receiver, (a vessel exhausted of air,) permitting the *leaves only* to receive the influence of the air; the plant remained thrifty in this situation for a length of time; but as soon as the whole plant was placed under the receiver, it withered and died.*

The upper surface of leaves, usually of a deeper green, is supposed to perform a more important part in respiration, than the under surface.

The upper surface is also thought to repel moisture; as you may perceive upon a cabbage leaf after a shower, or heavy dew, that the moisture is collected in drops, but has no appearance of being absorbed by the leaf. It has been found that the leaves of plants, laid with their upper surface upon the water, wither almost as soon, as if exposed to the air; although the leaves of the same plant, placed with their under surfaces upon the water, retain their freshness for some days. But few among the vegetable tribes are destitute of leaves, or green stems, which answer as a substitute. The *Monotropa*, or Indian pipe, is of a pure white, as if made of wax; the mushrooms are also destitute of any green herbage. It is not known in what manner the deficiency of leaves is made up to these vegetables.

The season of the year, and the month in which any species of plant unfolds its leaves, is termed its *frondescence*. Linnæus paid much attention to this subject; he stated as the result of some years investigation, that the opening of the leaf buds, and the unfolding of the leaves of the Birch tree, (Betula,) was the most proper time for the sowing of barley. The Indians of our country had an opinion, that the best time for planting Indian corn, was when the leaves of the White Oak, (QUERCUS *alba,*) first make their appearance; or according to their expression, are of the size of a squirrel's ears.

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* I give this experiment on the authority of Barton; but although the respiration of leaves seems not to be doubted, this experiment may not be thought exactly a fair one; for it would seem very difficult, to place a plant under a receiver, with the leaves exposed to the air, without at the same time, admitting any air into the receiver.

One of the most remarkable phenomena of leaves, is their *irritability*, or power of contraction, upon coming in contact with other substances. The compound leaves possess this property in the greatest degree; as the sensitive plant MIMOSA *sensitiva;* and the American sensitive plant, CASSIA *nictitans.*

The effect of light upon leaves is very apparent, as plants are almost uniformly found to present their upper surfaces to the side on which the greatest quantity of light is to be found.

Many plants close their leaves at a certain period of the day, and open them at another regular period; almost every garden may be found with some plants, in which this phenomenon may be observed; it is particularly remarkable in the sensitive plant, and the tamarind tree. This folding up of the leaves at particular periods, has been termed *the sleep* of plants: it may seem a singular term to apply to plants; but a celebrated botanist* remarks, "this folding up of the leaves may be as useful to the vegetable constitution, as real sleep is to the animal." Linnæus was led to observe the appearance of plants in the night, from a circumstance which occurred in raising the Lotus plant; he found one morning some very thrifty flowers, but at night they had disappeared; this excited his attention, and he began to watch the plants through the night, in order to observe the period of their unfolding. He was thus led to investigate the appearance of other plants in the night, and he particularly observed their different manner of sleep; some folding their leaves together, others throwing them back upon their stems, and exhibiting a variety of appearances. This phenomenon has been attributed to the absence of light. A curious experiment has been made by another botanist, who placed the sensitive plant in a dark cave, at midnight, and then lighted up the cave with lamps; the leaves which were, before, folded up, suddenly expanded, and when on the following day the lights were extinguished, the leaves again closed.

The period at which the leaves fall off is termed the *Defoliation** of the plant; about the middle of autumn, the leaves of all annual, and of many perennial plants, gradually lose their vigour, change their colour, and at length their vital power being entirely destroyed, they fall from their stems. The richness and variety of colouring exhibited about the end of autumn, by our groves and forests, is splendid beyond the power of the painter to imitate. Yellow, red, and brown, are the most common colours of the dying leaf; but these colours vary from the brightest scarlet, and the deepest crimson, intermixed with every shade of yellow, from the deep orange, to the pale straw colour.

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* Sir J. E. Smith.

† Or depriving of leaves.

Our lecture upon leaves has been very long, and yet we have merely touched upon the different circumstances, with respect to them. You will, perhaps, be induced to pay more attention than formerly to them, in their different stages; from their situation in the bud, to their full growth and perfection; and to feel a new interest in their change of colour, when you understand a little the philosophy of the change; and even the dry skeletons of leaves, which the blasts of autumn strew around us, may not only afford a direct moral lesson, but, inducing you to examine their structure, lead you to admire and adore the power which formed them.

APPENDAGES TO PLANTS.

Plants have a set of organs, the uses of which are less apparent than in those parts we have been considering; but we should not infer, because the design for which they have been formed, is in some measure concealed from us, that they were made for no purpose, or exist by mere accident; let us rather with humility, acknowledge that this blindness must be owing to the limited nature of our own faculties. It would be impious for us to imagine, that all the works of God which we cannot comprehend, are useless.

The organs to which we now refer are called by the general name of appendages; they consist of *nine* different kinds, *Stipules*, *Prickles*, *Thorns*, *Glands*, *Stings*, *Scales*, *Tendrils*, *Pubescence*, *and Bracts*.

1st. *Stipules*, are membranous or leafy scales, usually in pairs, at or near the base of the leaf or petiole. The stipules furnish characters used in botanical distinctions. They are various in their forms and situations, found in most plants, but sometimes wanting. The most natural situation of the stipules is in pairs, one on each side of the base of the footstalk: as in the sweet pea, some stipules fall off almost as soon as the leaves are expanded; but in general, they remain as long as the leaves.

2d. *Prickles*, arise from the bark, they are sometimes straight, sometimes hooked, and sometimes forked. They are usually found upon the stems, as in the rose; but in some cases, they cover the petiole, as in the raspberry; in others, they are found upon the leaf or the calyx, and in some instances, upon the berry; as in the gooseberry.

3d. *Thorns*, seem to be a kind of short pointed stem.* The thorns in some plants have been know to disappear by cultivation. The great Linnæus imagined that in such cases, the trees were divested of their natural ferocity and became tame. You may smile at such a strange idea, but even great minds have their weaknesses; when persons become enthusiastic in any science, they are in danger of fancying analogies or resemblances, which do not exist any where but in their own minds. A more rational opinion is given by another botanist, viz—that thorns are in reality buds, which a more favourable situation converts into luxuriant branches. But in some cases thorns do not disappear even under circumstances favourable to vegetation. They have been compared to the horns of animals.

4th. *Glands*, roundish minute appendages, sometimes called tumours or swellings; they contain a liquid secretion which is supposed to give to many plants their fragrance. They are sometimes attached to the base of the leaf, sometimes, they occur in the substance of the leaves; as in the lemon and myrtle, causing them to appear dotted when held to the light. They are found on the petioles of the passion flower, and between the teeth or notches of the leaves of many plants.

5th. *Stings*, hair-like substances, causing pain by an acrid liquor, which is discharged upon their being compressed; they are hollow, slender, and pointed, as in the nettle.

6th. *Scales*, substances, in some respects resembling the coarse scales of fish; they are often green, sometimes coloured, and are found upon all parts of vegetables, upon the roots of bulbous plants, and upon the stems and branches of other plants. They are imbricated upon the calyxes of most of the compound flowers. You have seen in buds, how important the scales are to protect the embryo plant during the winter. Scales surround the flowers of grasses, under the name of *glumes;* they envelop and sustain the stamens and fruits† of the pine, oak, chesnut, &c.

7th. *Tendrils*, thread-like or filiform appendages, by which weak stems attach themselves to other bodies for support; they usually rise from the branches, in some cases from the leaf, and rarely from the leaf stalk or flower stalk.

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* The thorn differs from the prickle, in growing out of the woody part of the plant, while the prickle proceeds only from the bark. You can easily remove the prickle; but in pulling off the thorn, a part of the wood would be separated also; this difference renders thorns more rigid than prickles.

† These fruits are called aments, cones, or strobiluma.

Tendrils are a very important, and are characteristic appendages to many plants. In the trumpet flower and ivy, the tendrils serve for roots; planting themselves into the bark of trees, or in the walls of buildings. In the cucumber and some other plants, the tendrils serve both for sustenance and shade. Many of the papilionaceous, or pea blossom plants, have twining tendrils, which wind to the right and back again. Among the vegetables which have tendrils, has been discovered that property, which some have called the instinctive intelligence of plants. A poetical botanist represents the tendrils of the gourd and cucumber, as "creeping away in disgust from the fatty fibres of the neighbouring olive." There is certainly much that is astonishing in the manner with which tendrils stretch themselves forward, to grasp some substances and shrink from others. But instead of imagining that they have a preference for some and a dislike for other objects, we have no reason to suppose they possess the slightest mark of mental energy; it is much more philosophical to conclude that these effects arise from physical causes, which may be rationally explained. It has been ascertained by experiments, that the tendrils of the vine, and some other plants recede from the light, and seek opaque bodies. The fact with respect to leaves is directly the reverse of this, for they turn themselves round to seek the light.

Some plants creep by their tendrils to a very great height, even to the tops of the loftiest trees; and seem only to cease ascending because they can find nothing higher to climb. One of our most beautiful climbing plants is the CLEMATIS *virginica*, or virgin's bower, which has beautiful pure white flowers.

8th. *Pubescence* includes all the down, hairs, woolliness, or silkiness of plants. The pubescence of plants varies in different soils, and with different modes of cultivation. But the species in some genera of plants are distinguished by the direction of the hairs. The microscope is sometimes necessary in determining with precision the existence and direction of the pubescence. It has been suggested that the uses of these appendages may be for similar purposes as the furs, hairs, and bristles of animals; to defend the plants from cold, and injuries from other causes.

9th. *The Bract* is a leaf among or near the flowers, different from the leaves of the plant; it is sometimes mistaken for the calyx. Bracts are either green or coloured, *deciduous* or *persistent*. In some plants, as the crown imperial, the stem is terminated by a number of large and conspicuous bracts. These appendages are sometimes longer and sometimes shorter than the calyx. The Orchis tribe have green leaf bracts. It is said no bracts are found in the class Tetradynamia.

We have now considered in regular order the first of the two classes into which we divided the vegetable organs, viz: such as tend to the support and growth of the plant, including Root, Stems, Leaves, and appendages. Buds were considered under this head as connected with leaves; the flower bud, is, however, equally related to the blossom, as the leaf bud is to the leaf.

LECTURE XI.

Chemical Composition of Plants.

Before proceeding to the organs of the plant, whose principal use appears to be the maturing of the seed, we will make some remarks upon the chemical composition of the vegetable, and of the manner in which it receives nourishment; the latter subject, belonging more properly to the root, stems, and leaves, than to the flower, which has other offices to perform than that of nourishing the plant; not, however, less important, for without the operations carried on by the different organs of the flower, the race of vegetables, having no means of being renewed, would soon cease to exist.

The growth of vegetables, and the increase of their weight, show that they imbibe some external substances which are incorporated into their own substance. This constitutes nutrition, and distinguishes living substances from dead matter. A stone does not receive nourishment, although it may increase by an external accumulation of matter. "Vegetable substances, analyzed by a chemical process, have been found to contain carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and sometimes nitrogen, sulphur, silex, (a flint-like substance,) the oxid of iron, soda, magnesia, and chalk."* These again may be reduced to carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, which are the ultimate† elements of the vegetable. These different substances are by the root, stems, and leaves of the plant, derived from the earth, air, and water.

IMMEDIATE OR PROXIMATE PRINCIPLES.

Vegetation produces chemical combinations which are distinguished by the name of immediate or proximate principles.

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* Mirbel. "Elemens de Botanique."

† Ultimate elements are the last or most minute products of analysis.

Although the immediate elements of plants are very numerous, but few of them are well known; they are the result of the action of the vital forces of plants, and are, therefore, important subjects of investigation to those who pursue the study of physiological botany to any great extent. Carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, are the elements or constituent parts of all proximate principles of plants. Mirbel divides the immediate elements into two classes.

1st. Those principles which are composed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, without any nitrogen.

2d. Such as contain, besides the substances belonging to the other class, some nitrogen; there are few containing this principle.

The first class is divided into three orders.

1st. Such principles as have more oxygen than sufficient to form water.

2d. When the oxygen and hydrogen exist in the exact proportion to form water.

3d. Principles where hydrogen is in excess.

The 1st order containing an excess of oxygen, includes vegetable acids: as

Acetic acid, or pure vinegar; this is generally produced by fermentation from wine, cider, and some other liquids; it is also found in a pure state in the Campeachy wood, and the sap of the Elm.

Malic acid may be extracted from green apples and the barberry.

Oxalic acid is found in a species of sorrel, the OXALIC *stricta*.

Tartaric acid is obtained from the tamarind and the cranberry; this is commonly called cream of tartar.

Citric acid is found in the lemon; it is mixed with the malic acid in the gooseberry, the cherry, and strawberry.

Quinic acid is obtained from the Peruvian bark, (*Cinchona.*)

Gallic acid is obtained from the oak, and from the sumach; it is highly astringent.

Benzoic acid is found in the LAURUS *benzoin*, and in the Vanilla; this is highly aromatic; it is thought to give the agreeable odour to balms.

Prussic acid; this acid gives out a strong odour like bitter almonds; it is an active poison, and when united with iron, forms the Prussian blue; it is obtained from peach meats and blossoms, from bitter almonds, &c.

The 2d order of proximate principles, without nitrogen, contains immediate elements formed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, in the proportion which constitutes water.

The Gums; of these there are many kinds, they have neither taste nor smell; dissolved in water, they form a mucilage more or less thick. The principal gums are,

Gum Arabic, which flows from the plant MIMOSA *nilotica.*

Common Gums, such as issue from the peach tree, the cherry tree, and many others.

Sugar is a substance which dissolves in water, and has a sweet taste; it is obtained from the sugar cane, the sugar maple, from the stalks of Indian corn, pumpkins, beets, and sweet apples. All vegetables which have a sweet taste may be made to yield sugar.

The 3d order of immediate principles is without nitrogen; it has an excess of hydrogen.

Oils. These are fluid substances, and are combustible; they do not mix with water.

The *Fixed Oils* are thick, and have little odour.

The oil of sweet almonds, and *olive oil* grow thick and opaque by being exposed to the air.

The *Oil of Flax seed*, (called linseed oil,) and some other oils, dry without losing their transparency; it is this quality which renders the linseed oil so valuable to painters.

The *Volatile oils*, are distinguished from the fixed oils by their aromatic odours, and their tendency to fly into the air, from which circumstance the term *volatile* is derived. Some of these oils, are those of the Orange, Lavender, Rose, Jessamine, Peppermint, and Wintergreen. These are often called essences, and are sometimes greatly reduced by being mixed with alcohol. The Volatile oils may be found in a great variety of plants, particularly in those of the Labiate family.

The *Aroma*, or *Aromatic property*, consists chiefly of the odours which are exhaled from plants, containing volatile oil; it is this oil which throws out the aromatic odour of the Ginger plant, of the Myrtle, Rose, and other sweet scented plants. Aromatic plants are much more common in hot, than cold countries; most of our aromatic spices are found in the equatorial regions.

Wax, is found on the surface of the fruit of the bay-berry, (MYRICA *cerifera.*) Bees wax is a vegetable production, made by the bees from pollen, or farina of plants.

Camphor has much analogy with the volatile oils, it is an extract from the LAURUS *camphora*, or Camphor tree of Japan.

RESIN exudes from the pine, and some other trees; it is dry, insoluble in water, but soluble in alcohol, and very inflammable.

The people in new countries, often use pine knots, which abound in resin, as a substitute for lamps.

The difference between resin and the volatile oils, appears to consist in the action of oxygen upon the resin; for the oil in absorbing oxygen from the air, passes into the resinous state.

Resins mixed with volatile oils form balsams; thick, odorous, and inflammable substances; of this kind are the balsam copaiva, dragon's blood, which, notwithstanding its terrific name, is but the simple extract of a plant, (DRACŒNA *draco*;) the balsam of *Tolu* is the extract of the TOLUIFERA *balsamum*.

These resins are sometimes mixed with gums, they are then called gum-resins; of this kind are gamboge, assafœtida, guaiacum, aloes, an extract from the ALOE *perfoliata*. These gum-resins in flowing from vegetables are sometimes white, and liquid like milk, but they usually become brown and hard by exposure to the air.

Indian rubber,* or as it is sometimes called, gum elastic, is the product of a South American tree, called the SIPHONIA *elastica*, an East Indian plant, the URCELIO *elastica*, and of some of the trees in the equatorial regions; it hardens, becomes brown, and takes the appearance of leather, by exposure to the air; it can neither be dissolved by water nor alcohol. The juice of milk weed plants is said to be similar to that of the Siphonia elastica, and that of other plants from which the Indian rubber is made.†

The green principle; it is to this principle that all the green parts, exposed to light, owe their colour; it undergoes changes in the different states of the plant, in autumn becoming brown or yellow. Davy attributes the change of colour, to the formation of some acid; you know that a drop of sour wine, lemon juice, or any other acid, will turn green to a brown or yellow colour.

The 2d class of proximate elements, are formed of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, which also compose the preceding class; but to this is added nitrogen.

Opium, a narcotic principle, extracted from the Poppy. It is soluble in alcohol, slightly so in water.

Hematine; this is the colouring principle, from the *Campeachy wood*.

Indigo, a colouring substance, obtained from several species of a plant, botanically termed INDIGOFERA, commonly called the Indigo plant.

Gluten, is extracted from the cotyledons of the seeds, of *leguminous* plants; as peas, beans, and from the albumen of wheat, rye, &c. It is obtained by separating it from the starch; flower owes some of its nourishing properties to gluten. It has an analogy, in some respects, with animal principles, and like them, is subject to putrefaction.

Jelly is the thickened juice of succulent fruits; as currants, quinces, and apples; it is soluble in hot water, though scarcely so in cold; when heated, it loses its jelly like form, which is that of a coagulated mass, between a liquid and solid, susceptible of tremulous motion; by long boiling, the juice loses the property which gives to jelly its peculiar appearance. Many colouring principles have never been separated from the substances to which they are united; as those of saffron, logwood, &c.

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* Caoutchouc.

† Mr. H. Eaton, assistant professor at the Rensselaer Institution, prepared a small quantity of the juice of the milk weed (Asclepias) in such a manner that it could not be distinguished from the imported Indian rubber, either in external appearance, or in its properties.

It has been suggested, that the red colour of fruits, arises from the combination of an acid, with a blue colouring principle; you know that the effect of mixing sulphuric, or any other acid, with an infusion of blue violets, or any vegetable blue, is to give a red tinge, varying in shade, from a purple red to a brilliant scarlet, in proportion to the quantity of acid.

It has also, upon the same principle, been supposed that the purple, red, and blue colouring of the petals of flowers is owing to different proportions of acid; this may explain the change of colour which appears in some flowers, which pass from blue to red; as the changeable Hydrangea; this change may be attributed to increase of acid combining with the blue colouring principle.* Some red flowers turn to blue; they are supposed, then, to have parted with some portion of the acid, which was united with their colouring principle.

THE SAP.

The sap is a transparent, colourless fluid, imbibed by the vegetable from the earth and air; or more properly, from the water existing in them, which holds in solution oxygen, hydrogen, carbon, nitrogen, earths, mineral salts, and animal and vegetable matter. We might suppose, that being derived from the same source, the sap in all vegetables would be alike, but it is never obtained pure; it is mingled with the *immediate* principles, and thus differs in different species of vegetables; water, however, constitutes the principal part in all.

The following result of the analysis of the sap, of some vegetables, has been offered by a French chemist.†

Sap of the *Elm*, (Ulmus *campestris*,) water, volatile matter, acetate of potash, carbonate of lime, vegetable matter, sulphate of potash.

Sap of the Beech, (Fagus *sylvatica*,) water, acetate of lime, with excess of acid, acetate of potash, gallic acid, tannin, mucous extract, acetate of alumine.

Sap of the Horse Chesnut, (Æsculus *hippocastanum*,) water, extractive mucous matter, nitre, acetate of potash, and carbonate of lime.

These few examples of the decomposition of vegetable principles, show how wide a field is open to the Chemist, in the study of vegetable elements.

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* Iron is supposed to be combined with the oxygen of the acid.

† *Vauquelin.*

The sap is compared to the blood of animals, penetrating through every part of the plant, by means of minute vessels, analogous to our veins and arteries, and serving for the nourishment of the vegetable.

Trees usually contain more sap in winter than in summer; but the sap in winter is thick and stagnant; that of summer is fluid, and enters the vegetable only to leave it soon by perspiration. It is asserted that in a few hours of a day in summer, a greater quantity of sap passes off by perspiration, than all which the tree possesses during some months in winter.

It may seem wonderful, that of so few elementary substances, such a great variety should exist, in the taste, smell, colour, consistence, medicinal, and nutricious qualities of vegetable combinations; is it not also wonderful that, with the nine digits and the cypher, we may make such varied combination of numbers; or with our twenty-six letters of the alphabet, form every variety of composition?

Thus, also, by the various combination of a few simple principles, are formed all vegetable and animal productions; and, although formerly, the presence of nitrogen was considered as a test of animal substance, and the want of it, of a vegetable substance, it is now ascertained that animal substances may exist without nitrogen, and that this principle is contained in several vegetable substances.

The elements of the compounds being the same, the question naturally arises, what causes the great diversity in the properties? Two causes may be assigned in answer to this question, viz. 1st. The different proportions in which the elements are combined.

2d. The various modes of their combination. In vinegar and sugar, the one substance a liquid, and of a sour taste; the other solid, and sweet, are found the same elements in different proportions, and differently combined. In gum, starch, and sugar, the elements are the same, the proportions nearly the same, but they are combined differently.

When we know by chemical analysis, the combinations which exist in inorganized bodies, we can by putting the same together, often form similar substances; but we cannot thus form organized bodies; for to these belongs a living principle, which it is not in the power of man to bestow. It is said, that Rosseau declared, he would not believe in the correctness of the analysis of vegetable or animal substances, until he should see a young animal or a thrifty plant spring into existence, from the retort of a chemist.

But the power *to create*, the Almighty has not delegated to man; neither is it to be supposed that any future discoveries in science, will ever confer it upon him. To study into the compound nature of substances; to classify, and arrange, and by an almost endless variety of combinations to beautify the world of matter; to cultivate the faculties of mind until stronger, and brighter, the mental vision sees facts and principles before invisible; these, are the high privileges bestowed on man; but *to add one new particle to matter, or one new faculty to the mind, is beyond the power of the whole human race.*

LECTURE XII.

Of the Calyx and Corolla.

We now proceed to the second general division of the vegetable organs, or the flower and fruit; you will, no doubt, be pleased with this part of our subject; particularly, with what relates to the blossom. The beauty of the object seems to associate itself with inquiries respecting it. There is something in flowers which seems to delight our hearts: they are lovely, but like youth and beauty they soon pass away. If the flower were indeed all, and when that were gone nothing remained but the empty stalk; we might mourn that so interesting an object was destined to so worthless an end; but when we consider that the flower is designed to produce the fruit, and that having performed this important office, it then passes away, we feel it, not only to be beautiful in itself, but highly important in its relations.

It is by a very natural analogy, that you who are now in the bloom of youth, may be compared to the flowers of the vegetable world. After youth and beauty shall have faded away, may your minds exhibit that richness of fruit, which it is the important business of the present season to nurture and mature.

Pliny, an ancient Roman writer, has beautifully said, that "blossoms are the joy of trees;" but the production of the fruit seems to be the great object of nature. After the short period of flowering, most herbaceous plants perish, or live no longer than to mature the fruit: in other plants, the root retains its vital principle, and blossoms are many years successively produced. All plants bear fruit at least once during their lives, except prevented by some accidental circumstance.

We do not class the flowers as separate from the fruit; for, although the fruit does not swell, and come to perfection until after the flower has decayed, yet the fruit does, in reality, exist in the flower before that period.

The flower and fruit considered together are called the organs of fructification. There are of these, as you have already learned, seven principal parts, the Calyx, Corolla, Stamen. Pistil, Pericarp, Seed, Receptacle.

The stamens and pistils are essential. The calyx is often wanting in the most beautiful flowers, as in the Tulip and Lily.

The Calyx or cup of the flower is the outer covering formed by one or more leaves; when composed of one leaf it is said to be *monophyllous*, when of several distinct leaves it is *polyphyllous;* when one calyx is surrounded by another, it is said to be double: when one calyx includes many florets it is *common.*

In the calyx some of the most important parts, are the *tube,* the *throat,* and the *mouth.* It is necessary to notice the position of the calyx, with respect to the germ; it is *superior* when above, *inferior* when below the germ. It is sometimes attached or adhering to the germ, in this case it is persistent.

There are seven kinds of Calyxes.

1st. *Perianth.* This is the only real calyx or cup, as the term cup does not properly apply to the other divisions. A good example of the perianth calyx is the rose; in this, it is *urn* shaped, consisting of five divisions resembling little leaves. In the pink it is tubular and monophyllous.

2d. *Involucrum,* This is that kind of calyx, which comes out at a distance below the flower and never encloses it. It is generally found at the origin of umbels, as in the carrot.

The involucrum is said to be *universal,* when it applies to the whole of an aggregate flower; *partial,* when it encloses one floret, which, with others, constitutes a compound or aggregate flower.

The term involucrum is applied to the membranous covering in the fructification of ferns.

3d. *Ament* or *Catkin,* is a receptacle long, and filiform, covered with scales, each of which protects one or more stamens or pistils. This is the most common calyx of the forest trees; as the oak and walnut; it is also to be seen in the willow and poplar. The whole is one aggregate flower. In some cases the staminate flowers are in an ament, and the pistillate are enclosed in a perianth.

4th. *Spatha,* is that kind of calyx which first encloses a flower, and when it expands, bursts longitudinally, and is left at a distance below, as in the common flag. The spatha usually dies after the blossoming of the flowers; but in the wild-turnip and Calla, (Egyptian Lily,) it is as permanent as the flowers.

The spatha of the wild-turnip, and also of the *Calla,* encloses a spadix or coloured receptacle, on which are the stamens and pistils growing separately, and they are accordingly placed in the class Monœcia.

5th. *Glume,* or *Husk,* the calyx of grasses, and grass-like plants; each husk, chaff or scale, is called a valve; when there is but one seed, it is called *univalve,* when two *bivalve.* To the glume belongs the *awn* or beard. The corolla of grasses is husky, like the calyx, and is sometimes considered as a part of it. A French Botanist says, that there is in the grasses, neither calyx nor corolla, that these scales are only membranous bracts. He thinks, the confusion, with respect to those parts, has tended to render the study of grasses difficult.

6th. *Calyptra.* The cap, or hood of pistillate mosses, resembling in form and position the extinguisher of a candle.

7th. *Volva,* the ring or wrapper of the Fungus plants. It first encloses the head of the Fungus, afterwards bursts and contracts; remaining on the stems, or at the root.

The calyx seems of use in protecting the other parts of the flower, before they expand; and afterwards supporting them, by keeping all in their proper positions.

Pinks having petals, with feet, long and slender, which would drop, or break, without support, have a calyx. Tulips having firm petals, and each one resting upon a broad strong basis, are able to support themselves; and they have no calyx.

In some plants the calyx serves as a seed-vessel; as in the order Gymnospermia, of the class Didynamia, when there are four naked seeds lying in the bottom of the calyx.

THE COROLLA.

The Corolla, or Crown, is that part of the flower which is most remarkable for the liveliness of its colours, the delicacy of its substance, and the sweetness of its perfume. It surrounds the stamens and pistils, is red in the rose, white in the lily of the valley, and yellow in the cowslip; in some flowers it is wanting.

Each division, or leaf of the corolla, is called a *petal.* The corolla, before its blossoming, is folded in the calyx; as the leaves are within the scales of the leaf-bud; and the whole is then called the flower bud. In most cases the calyx and corolla are so distinctly marked, that it is perfectly easy to distinguish them; the colour usually constitutes a very striking mark of difference; the calyx being ordinarily green, and the corolla of a more lively hue; but the colour is not always a criterion. In some cases the calyx is beautifully coloured. In the FUSCHIA, (Ladies' ear-drop,) the calyx is of a bright scarlet; you would, no doubt, at first think it to be the corolla; but if you remove the scarlet-coat, you may see, wrapped around the eight stamens, a purple covering; on taking off each piece carefully, you will find four petals,* as distinct as the petals of a rose; you will then see that the outer covering must be the calyx.

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* Some Botanists call these nectaries, but this seems to be making an unnecessary confusion in terms; for they have as much the appearance of petals, as the petals have of a rose or pink.

Linnæus, in order to establish some certain rule of determining, made the following distinction between the corolla and the calyx, viz. that the corolla has its petals alternate with the stamens, and the calyx has its leafets arranged opposite to the stamens. This rule is not found to be invariable; it has led some botanists to call that the corolla, which others have named the calyx. It seems as if nature had not placed any absolute limits between these two organs.

The corolla falls off soon after the flowering, as in the poppy, it is then said to be *caducous;* sometimes it fades and withers upon the stalk, as in the blue bell; it is then said to be *marescent*, or withering.

Each simple part, of which the corolla is composed, is called a *petal.* A flower with petals, is said to be *petalous;* without petals, it is called *apetalous.* The petals are *definite* when their number is not more than twenty: they are said to be *indefinite* when they exceed that number.

If the corolla is formed of one single piece, or petal, it is *monopetalous;* if of more than one it is *polypetalous.* You may sometimes find a difficulty in determining whether a corolla is in one piece, or more; for the monopetalous flowers often, have deep divisions, extending almost to the base of the corolla; but they must be divided at the base, or be in separate pieces, in order to be considered as *polypetalous.* It is generally a good rule, to consider the parts into which a flower naturally falls, as so many petals.

The lower part of the corolla is called the *tube;* this is more or less elongated or inflated, (swelled out,)

The *Throat* is the entrance into the tube; it is either open or closed by hairs or scales. The *limb* is the upper border of the corolla. In each petal there are two essential parts. The *claw*, which is the lower part, by which the petal is inserted upon the receptacle; this part is sometimes very short, scarcely to be distinguished: it is very long and slender in the pink, short and usually of a pale colour in the rose; it is similar to the tube of monopetalous corollas.

Lamina is the upper part of the petal, broader and usually thinner than the claw; sometimes the margin is without any divisions, or *entire*, as in the rose, sometimes it is toothed or notched, as in the pink. The border of a polypetalous corolla, corresponds to the limb of the monopetalous, and the claw, to the tube.

The corolla is *superior* when its place of insertion *is above the germ*, *inferior when below.* It is *regular*, when if a compass were placed upon the centre of the corolla, and a circle traced around its edge, each division would exactly touch the circle;

if some divisions are longer or shorter than others, the corolla is irregular.*

The principle kinds of monopetalous corolla are hollowed out within the base, and generally diverging upwards, as the blue bell.

Funnel form. With a tubular base, and the border opening gradually in the form of a funnel, as the morning glory.

Salver form. Having a flat spreading limb or border, proceeding from the top of a tube, as the lilac. The ancient Romans had a kind of drinking glass of this form called a *salver.*

Wheel form. Having a spreading border without a tube, or with a very short one, as the borage.

Labiate, consisting of two parts, somewhat resembling the lips of a horse or other animal; they are either *personate,* having the throat closed, as the snap dragon, or *ringent,* with the throat open, as in the catnip.

Polypetalous corollas are,

Cruciform, consisting of four equal petals, spreading out in the form of a cross, as the radish, cabbage, &c.

Caryophylleous, having five single petals, each terminating in a long claw, enclosed in a tubular calyx, as the pink.

Liliaceous, a corolla with six petals spreading gradually from the base, so as to exhibit a bell form appearance, as in the tulip and lily.

Rosaceous, a corolla formed of roundish spreading petals without claws, or with very short ones, as the rose and apple.

Papilionaceous, a flower with a banner, two wings and a keel, from the word *papilio,* a butterfly, on account of a supposed resemblance in form, as the pea blossom.

If a corolla, in shape, is not like any of the forms we have described, it is said to be *anomalous,* which signifies without law or rule.

NECTARY.

There is a part usually found in flowers, called the nectary, which secretes a peculiar fluid, the honey of the plant; this fluid constitutes the principal food of bees, and various other species of insects.

Linnæus thought the nectary to be an appendage of the corolla, and every part of the flower which was not stamen, pistil, calyx, or corolla, he called nectary: his remarks on this subject have given rise to more severe critcisms, than almost any other part of his system.

It is thought he applied the term too extensively, and in too vague a manner, including parts of a flower, the uses of which are not known.

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* A slight variation sometimes appears in the divisions of regular corollas.

We cannot well consider the nectary as a separate organ from the corolla, because it often makes a part of it, but the nectary is sometimes an entirely separate part.

The nectary seems not to be confined to any particular part of the flower. As connected with the corolla, it may be a mere *cavity*, like the groove in the claw of the petal of the lily, and the cavity near the base of the crown imperial.

In the ranunculus it is a production of the corolla in the form of a *scale*; in the violet a process of the same, in the form of a *horn* or *spur*. In the columbine, the nectary is a separate organ from the petals in the form of a horn. In the monks'-hood one of the petals, being concave, conceals the nectaries, they are therefore said to be *hooded*.

In monopetalous corollas, the tube is supposed to answer the purpose of a nectary in secreting the honey.

With respect to the purpose for which honey is collected by the nectary and perhaps other parts of the flower, there seems among authors to be some difference of opinion. Darwin supposes this to be the food with which the stamens and pistils are nourished, or the unripe seeds perfected. Smith asserts, that the only use of honey, with respect to the plant, is to tempt insects, who in procuring it scatter the dust of the anthers, and fertilize the flower, and even carry the pollen from the barren to the fertile blossoms; this is particularly the case in the fig-tree.

Before closing our remarks upon the corolla and the nectary, which we call (because we cannot better dispose of it) an appendage to the corolla, it may be proper to notice some of the uses of this part of the flower which in general constitutes its chief beauty.

One important office of the corolla, is to secure those delicate and important organs, which it encloses, the stamens and pistils, from all external injury, and to favour their developement. After the germ has become fertilized by the influence of the pollen, the corolla fades away and either falls off, or remains withered upon the stalk; the juices which nourished the corolla, then go to the germ, to assist in its growth, and enable it to become a perfect fruit.

Another use of the corolla seems to be, to furnish a resting place for insects in search of honey.

The corolla is supposed by Darwin to answer the same purpose to the stamens and pistils, as the lungs perform for the animal system; that each petal is furnished with an artery which conveys the vegetable blood to its extremities, exposing it to the light and air under a delicate moist membrane; this vegetable blood (according to his theory) is then collected and returned in correspondent veins, for the sustenance of the anthers and stigmas, and for the purpose of secreting honey.

Bernardin de Saint Pierre, the author of the interesting story of Paul and Virginia, thinks the corolla is intended to collect the rays of the sun, and to reflect them upon the stamens and pistils which are placed in the centre.*

But although we find much to gratify our curiosity, in our inquiries into the wonders of nature and are permitted in some cases, as it might seem, to search into the mysteries of Providence; yet we are ever restricted by the limited nature of our faculties, as if the Creator had said, "Hitherto shalt thou go but no farther."

LECTURE XIII.

Stamens and Pistils.

Although the calyx and the corolla may be wanting in some plants, the stamens and pistils are indispensable to the perfection of the fruit. They are in most plants enclosed by the same envelope, or stand upon the same receptacle; but in the class Monœcia they are on different flowers, but from one common root; and in Diœcia, they are on different flowers, springing from different roots. Yet however distant they may be, nature has provided many ways by which the pollen from the staminate flowers may be conveyed to the pistillate, and there assist in perfecting the seed. In order that you may the better understand this curious process, and the organs by means of which it is carried on, we will examine each one separately.

1st. Stamens are thread-like parts which are exterior with respect to the pistil, interior with regard to the corolla. The number of stamens varies in different flowers from one to more than a hundred.

The stamen is divided into two parts the *filament* and *anther*.

The *Filament*, is so called from *filum*, a thread; filaments vary in their form; some are long and slender, as in the pink which contains ten; in the Tulip which contains six, they are short and thick. They are usually smooth, but in the Mullein they are bearded, in the Spider-wort, (*Tradescantia*) they are covered with down. In most cases a filament supports but one anther, but sometimes it is forked and bears two or more;

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* This ingenious author remarks, that man seems the only animal sensible to the sweet impressions, made by the colour and odour of plants upon the senses; but we think he has asserted too much. Do not the brute creation seem to enjoy, by the sense of smelling, the freshness of the verdant fields? But man is very apt to say, "see all things for my use."

in some instances many filaments have but one anther. When the filaments are enclosed in the tube of the corolla they are said to be *inserted*, when they extend out of it *exserted*.

In double flowers the stamens are changed to petals. This is the effect of cultivation; as may be seen in the Peony, in the Pink, and the Snow-ball. For this reason, as before remarked, cultivated flowers are not usually so good for botanical analysis, as wild ones. The single flower exhibits the number of parts which nature has given to it; as the Rose, which when found in its native state has but five petals.

Anther is a little knob or box usually situated on the summit of the filament, it has cells or cavities which contain a powder called the pollen; this is yellow and very conspicuous in the Lily and Tulip. Of the important use of this dust in the perfection of the fruit we shall soon speak, but first, it is necessary to remind you of the central organ of the flower.

2d. Pistil, which is no less important than the stamens. This organ is usually surrounded by the stamens; like them, the number is various, from one pistil to hundreds; when this part is wanting the flower is called sterile.

The Pistil is usually formed of three distinct parts, the germ, style, and stigma.

Germ. The lower part, called the *germ*, contains the rudiments of the fruit yet in an embryo or unformed state. The germ is said to be superior when placed above the calyx or corolla: as in the strawberry, inferior when below them: as in the apple. The figure of the germ is roundish in some, cordate in others, angled in others; indeed, its forms are various, but these you will learn better by observation than description.

Style. The Style, like the filament, is sometimes wanting; when present, it proceeds from the germ, and bears on its summit the stigma. It is usually long and slender, of a cylindrical form, not generally hollow, but formed by a union of bundles of fibres, which transmit from the stigma to the germ the fertilizing pollen.

Stigma. This is the top of the pistil, and always present; if the style be wanting, it is placed upon the germ, and said to be *sessile*, as in the tulip. The stigma is various in size and form; sometimes it is scarcely larger than a point; sometimes it is in a little round head; sometimes hollow and gaping, more especially when the flower is in its highest perfection generally downy, and always more or less moist, with a peculiar viscid fluid, which, in some plants, is so copious as to form a drop, though never large enough to fall to the ground.

USE OF THE STAMENS AND PISTILS.

It has been observed that the stamens and pistils were wanting to the perfection of the fruit and seed of the plant; we will now explain to you the manner in which they conduce to this important object; as you are now acquainted with the different organs and their names, you will no doubt easily understand the explanation.

The pollen, which in most flowers is a kind of yellow dust, is by the bursting of the anther, which takes place in a certain stage of the flower, thrown out; in falling some portion of it strikes upon the stigma. The pollen is very curiously formed; although appearing like little particles of dust, upon examining it with a microscope, it is found to be composed of innumerable organized *corpuscules*. These little bodies, though usually yellow, are sometimes white, red, blue, &c. In order to observe them well, it is necessary to put them upon water; the moisture, by swelling them, renders their true form perceptible. They are *oblong* in the Umbelliferous plants, *globular* in the Syngenesious, and *triangular* in some others. In some their surface is smooth, in others armed with little points. They are connected together by minute threads; as in the honeysuckle, &c. These little bodies, thus placed upon water, swell with the moisture until they burst; a liquid matter is then thrown out, and, expanding upon the surface of the water, appears like a light cloud.

"I should never finish" (says the French botanist* from whom this account of the pollen is translated,) "if I should attempt to describe the varieties of appearances in the pollen."

We have translated his minute investigation of the nature of the pollen for two purposes: one of which was to show you that wonders exist in nature which common observation cannot detect. You would scarcely have imagined that the yellow dust seen upon the Lily or Tulip, and scarcely visible upon many other flowers, exhibited appearances so interesting as to engage the attention of a learned philosopher to such an extent, and in such a number of experiments, that he should find it too long a task to enumerate all the phenomena which he had observed. It is to convince you that the field of observation in the works of nature is absolutely unlimited, that we have brought this subject before you; for the limits of our present study do not permit us to penetrate into the minute investigations which delight those who have passed beyond the first principles of natural science.

Another purpose, and one more connected with our present object in what we have explained to you respecting the pollen, is to show you its use in the vegetable economy. You have seen the effect of moisture upon the pollen; you will recollect that the stigma was said to be imbued with a liquid substance, and that the anther, when ripe, opens its lids or valves, and throws out the pollen; this, as the pistil is usually situated with regard to the stamens, falls upon the stigma; swelled with the moisture which it there finds, each little sack of the pollen explodes, and the oily substance which it contains is absorbed by the stigma, and passes through minute pores into the germ.

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* Mirbel.

In the germ are already seeds formed, but these seeds require the agency of the pollen to bring them to the perfection necessary for producing their species. You see now why the stamens and pistils are so essential to the perfection of a plant. Nature does not form a beautiful flower and then leave it to perish without any provision for a future plant; but in every vegetable provides for the renewal of the same.

The real use of stamens and pistils was long a subject of dispute among philosophers, till Linnæus explained it beyond a possibility of doubt. They have from the most remote antiquity been considered of great importance in perfecting the fruit. The Date Palm which was cultivated by the ancients, bears stamens and pistils on separate trees. The Greeks discovered that in order to have good fruit, it was necessary to plant the two kinds of trees near together, and that without this assistance the dates had no kernel and were not good for food. The pistillate flowers may indeed produce an imperfect fruit,* and are therefore called the fertile flowers; the staminate are called infertile.

As moisture causes the pollen to explode, rains and heavy dews are sometimes injurious to plants; the farmer fears wet weather while his corn is in blossom. Nature has kindly ordered that most flowers should either fold their petals together, or hang down their heads when the sun does not shine, thus protecting the pollen from injury.

The fertilization of the fig is said to be accomplished by insects. In this singular plant the fruit encloses the flower; it is at first like a hollow receptacle, lined with many flowers, seldom both stamens and pistils in the same fig. This receptacle has only a small opening at the summit. The seeds therefore in general would not be perfected were it not for certain little flies, fluttering from one fig to the other, and thus carrying the pollen from the staminate to the pistillate flowers.

Although the fertilization of plants where the stamens and pistils are on separate flowers, depends a little upon chance, the favourable chances are so numerous that it is hardly possible in the order of nature that a pistillate plant should remain unfertilized. The pollen is light, its grains are abundant, and the butterflies, the honey bees, and other insects transport them from flower to flower.

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* But not seed that will vegetate.

The winds also assist in executing the designs of nature. The pollen of the Pines and Firs rising like a cloud above the forests, moved by the wind, disseminates its grains around, some of which falling upon the aments or pistillate flowers, roll within their scaly envelops and fertilize the germs.

The number of plants in which the pistils and stamens are on different flowers, is few compared to those which have these important organs enclosed within the same corolla; this is the case with most of our plants and shrubs, and even with the trees of hot countries; whose leaves being always present, might impede the passage of the pollen. On the contrary the trees of cold climates have generally the stamens and pistils on separate flowers, blossoming before the leaves come forth, and in a windy season of the year. Those which blossom later, as the Oak, are either peculiarly frequented by insects, or like the numerous kinds of Firs, have leaves so little in the way, and pollens so excessively abundant, that it can scarcely fail of gaining access to the pistillate flower.

In all cases the pollen and stigma are in perfection at the same time, and the stamens are generally shortest in drooping flowers, and longest in erect ones; thus in both cases hanging over the stigma. "Gardeners formerly attempted to assist nature by stripping off the infertile flowers of melons and cucumbers, considering them as unnecessary incumbrances since they would never become fruit. But finding that they then obtained no fruit at all, they soon learned the wiser practice of admitting the winds to blow, and the insects to transfer the pollen of the infertile to the fruit-bearing flowers."*

LECTURE XIV.

Inflorescence—Receptacle—Pericarp.

After having given our particular attention to the important uses of the stamens and pistils, we will now proceed to consider some circumstances with regard to the Corolla, which might properly have been introduced when considering that organ; but as having relation to other parts of the plant were omitted.

The *position* of the Corolla or flower may be considered under three heads.

1st. With respect to the organs which it contains.

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* Smith.

2d. With respect to the branches which support it.

3d. With respect to the flowers which surround it, or which grow on the same peduncle.

1st. The corolla with respect to the organs which it contains.

The corolla when it is monopetalous supports the stamens, the number of which in this case always corresponds to the number of divisions of the limb of the corolla. When the corolla is polypetalous, the stamens are inserted upon the calyx or upon the receptacle; their number is then usually double the number of petals: as in the pink, which has ten stamens and five petals. When inserted beneath the germ or base of the pistil, the corolla is said to be *hypo-gynous*, (underneath the style or inferior:) as in the *stramonium*. When it is inserted into the calyx and surrounds the germ as in the currant, it is said to be *peri-gynous*, (around the style or enveloping it.) When the corolla is inserted upon the germ as in the trumpet-honey-suckle, it is said to be *epi-gynous*, (upon the germ, or superior.)

2d. The corolla, with respect to the branches which support it.

The disposition of flowers upon their branches is analogous to that of the leaves; thus the flowers are either *radical*, coming from the root, or *cauline* coming from the stem; they are *peduncled* or *sessile*, *solitary*, *scattered* or *opposite*, *alternate* or *axillary*. They grow in *whorls*, *fasicles*, or *heads*. Sometimes *unilateral*, growing on one side of the branch, and sometimes fixed equally upon all parts of the peduncle—they all point in different directions.

3d. The corolla with respect to the flowers which surround it, or which grow on the same peduncle.

The different modes of division of the common peduncle into lesser peduncles or supports, cause a great difference in the appearance and situation of flowers, and appear under a variety of forms. This is called the *inflorescence*, or manner of flowering.

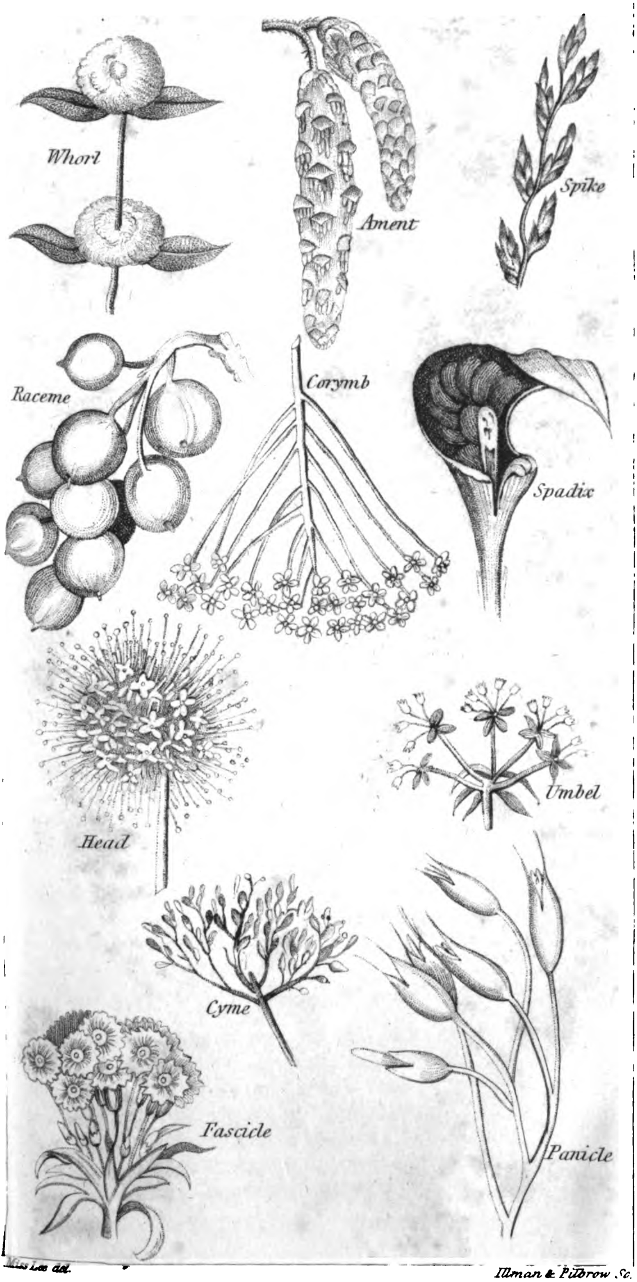
The name of *peduncle* is given to the green part which comes from the stem and supports the flower; sometimes it is called the foot stalk of the flower or fruit. The name of *pedicle* is given to the divisions of the peduncle.

When the plant is one flowered, the flower is usually inserted at the end of the stem, the penduncle in that case is scarcely distinct from the stem.

There are several kinds of inflorescences.

1. ***Whorl***, **an assemblage of flowers surrounding the stem or ts branches, constitute a whorl or ring; this is seen in the Mint and many of the Labiate plants.**
2. ***Raceme***, **or cluster, consists of numerous flowers each on its**

INFLORESCENCE PLATE VII.



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own stalk or pedicel, and all arranged on one common peduncle: as a bunch of Currants.

3. *Panicle* bears the flowers in a kind of loose subdivided bunch or cluster, without any regular order; as in the Oat. A Panicle contracted into a compact, somewhat ovate form, as in the Lilac, is called a *Thyrse* or bunch; a bunch of grapes is a good example.
4. *Spike*, this is an assemblage of flowers arising from the sides of a common stem; the flowers are sessile or with very short peduncles: as the Wheat and the Mullein. A Spike is generally erect. The lowest flowers usually blossom and fade before the upper ones expand.
5. *Umbel*, several flower stalks of nearly equal length spreading out from a common centre, like the rays of an umbrella, bearing flowers on their summits; as Fennel, and Carrot.
6. *Cyme*, resembles an umbel in having its common stalks all spring from one centre, but differs in having those stalks irregularly subdivided; as the Snow ball and Elder.
7. *Corymb*, or false umbel, when the peduncles rise from different heights above the main stem, but the lower ones being longer, they form nearly a level or a convex top: as the Yarrow.
8. *Fascicle*, flowers on little stalks variously inserted and subdivided, collected into a close bundle, level at the top: as the Sweet William; it resembles a corymb, but the flowers are more densely clustered.
9. *Head* or tuft, has sessile flowers heaped together in a globular form, as in the Clover, and the Button-bush, (*Cephalanthus.*)
10. *Ament* or catkin, is an assemblage of flowers composed of scales and stamens arranged along a common thread-like receptacle, as in the Chesnut and Willow; this is more particularly described under the divisions of the calyx.
11. *Spadix* is an assemblage of flowers growing upon a common receptacle, and surrounded by a spatha or sheath, as in the Egyptian lily.

RECEPTACLE.

The receptacle or base, is that extremity of the peduncle or stalk which at first supports the flower, and afterwards the fruit. As this is its only use, it may properly be considered as belonging to the organs of fructification. In simple flowers as the tulip, the receptacle is scarcely to be distinguished from the peduncle, but in compound flowers, the receptacle is extended and furnishes a support of greater or less size for the flowers and fruit.

There are several kinds of Receptacles.

1st. *Proper*, when it supports but one flower, as the violet and lily.

2d. *Common*, when it supports many flowers or florets, the assemblage of which forms an aggregate or compound flower, as the sunflower and the dandelion.

The common receptacle presents a great variety of forms; it is either *dry* or *pulpy*, *concave* in the artichoke, *flat* in the sunflower, *conical* in some, *convex* and *spherical* in others.

As to its surface, it is *punctate*, interspersed with hollow points or dots, as in the daisy, *hairy* as in the thistle, *naked* as in the dandelion, or *chaffy* as in the chamomile.

The filament which supports the flowers in the ament or catkin, is a receptacle.

3d. *Rachis* is the filiform receptacle which connects the florets in a spike, as in the heads of wheat.

4th. *Columella*, the central column in a capsule, to which the seeds are attached.

5th. *Spadix*, an elongated receptacle resembling a club, proceeding from a spatha, as in the wild turnip and Egyptian lily, (Calla ethiopica.)

PERICARP OR FRUIT.*

The germ being fertilized, the parts of the flower which are not necessary for the growth of the fruit, usually fade, and either fall off or wither away. The germ continues to enlarge until it arrives to perfection. Every kind of fruit you see has been once but the germ of the flower. The size of fruit is not usually proportioned to that of the vegetable which produced it. The pumpkin and the gourd grow upon slender herbaceous plants, while the large oak produces but an acorn.

There are two parts in the fruit, the *seed* and the *envelope*. *Pericarp*, so called from *peri*, around, *karpos*, fruit, is all of the fruit which is not the seed. The use of the pericarp is to convey nourishment to the seeds, and to enclose and defend them from injury.

Some plants are destitute of a pericarp, as in the balm, and other plants in the order Angiospermia, class Didynamia, and in many of the compound flowers, and the grasses; the seeds in this case lie in the bottom of the calyx, which here performs the office of a pericarp.

We shall consider the Pericarps under nine divisions; Capsule, Silique, Legume, Follicle, Drupe, Nut, Pome, Berry and Strobile.

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* The term fruit in common language is limited to pulpy fruits which are proper for food; but in a botanical sense, the fruit includes the seeds and pericarps of all vegetables.

1st. **Capsule**, signifies little chest or casket; this is a hollow pericarp, which spontaneously opens by pores, as the Poppy, or by scales, as in the Mullein. The capsules in splitting or opening, are divided externally into one or more pieces called *valves;* these are the openings by which the seeds of the capsule are to escape. The capsule is *bivalved* when it splits into two pieces, or opens with two valves, as in the Bean; *trivalved*, opening with three valves. The internal divisions of the capsule are called *cells;* these are the chambers appropriated for the reception of the seeds; according to the number of these cells, the capsule is *one celled, two celled, &c.* The membranes by which the capsule is divided into cells are called *dissepiments*, or partitions; these partitions are either parallel to the valves or contrary. The *columella* is the central pillar in a capsule; and is the part which connects the several internal partitions with the seed. It takes its rise from the receptacle and has the seed fixed to it all around.

2d. **Silique** or *Siliqua*, is a two valved pericarp or pod, with the seeds attached alternately to its opposite edge, as Mustard and Radish.

The proper silique is two celled, being furnished with a partition which runs the whole length of this kind of Pericarp; there are some exceptions to this, as in the Celandine. *Silicle* (*Silicula*, a little pod,) is distinguished by being shorter than the proper silique, it is almost round, as in Shepherd's purse. This difference in the form of the Silique and Silicle is the foundation of the distinction of the orders in the class Tetradynamia.

3d. **Legume**, is a pericarp of two valves, with the seeds attached only to one *suture* or seam; as the Pea. In this circumstance it differs from the Silique, which has its seeds affixed to both sutures. The word *pod* is used in common language for both these species of pericarp. Plants which produce the legume are called *Leguminous*. The greater number of these plants are in the 16th class, Diadelphia. The Tamarind is a legume filled with pulp, in which the seeds are lodged.

4th. **Follicle**, is a one valved pericarp which opens longitudinally on one side, having its seed loose within it, that is, not bound to the suture. We have examples of this in the Dog's bane, (*Apocynum*,) and in the Milk weed, (*Asclepias*.)

5th. **Drupe**, a stone fruit, is a kind of pericarp which has no valve, and contains a nut or stone, within which there is a kernel. The Drupe is mostly a moist succulent fruit: as in the Plum, the Cherry, and the Peach. The nut or stone, which, in the drupe, is surrounded by the soft pulpy flesh, is a kind of woody cup commonly containing a single kernel, called the *Nucleus;* this hard shell, thus enveloping the kernel, is called the *Putamen;* it may be seen in the stone of a Cherry or Peach.

6th. Nut is a seed covered with a shell resembling the capsule in some respects, and the drupe in others: as the Walnut, Chesnut, &c.

7th. Pome is a pulpy pericarp without valves, but containing a membranous capsule, with a number of cells, which contain the seeds. This species of pericarp has no external opening or valve. The Apple, Pear, Quince, the Gourd, the Cucumber, and the Melon, furnish us with examples of this kind of Pericarp. With respect to form, the Pome is oblong, ovate, globular, &c. the form of fruits being much varied by climate and soil. You know that apples are not uniform in their size or figure. With respect to the number of cells, the apple is also variable.

8th. Berry is a succulent pulpy pericarp, without valves, and containing naked seeds, or seeds with no other covering than the pulp which surrounds it; the seeds in the Berry are sometimes dispersed promiscuously through the pulpy substance, but are more generally placed upon receptacles within the pulp. A compound Berry consists of several single berries, each containing a seed, united together; as in the Raspberry. Each of the separate parts is called an *Acinus*, or grain. The Orange and Lemon are berries with a thick coat. There are some kinds of berries, usually so called, that seem scarce entitled to the name; for the pulp is not properly a part of the fruit, but originates from some other organ.

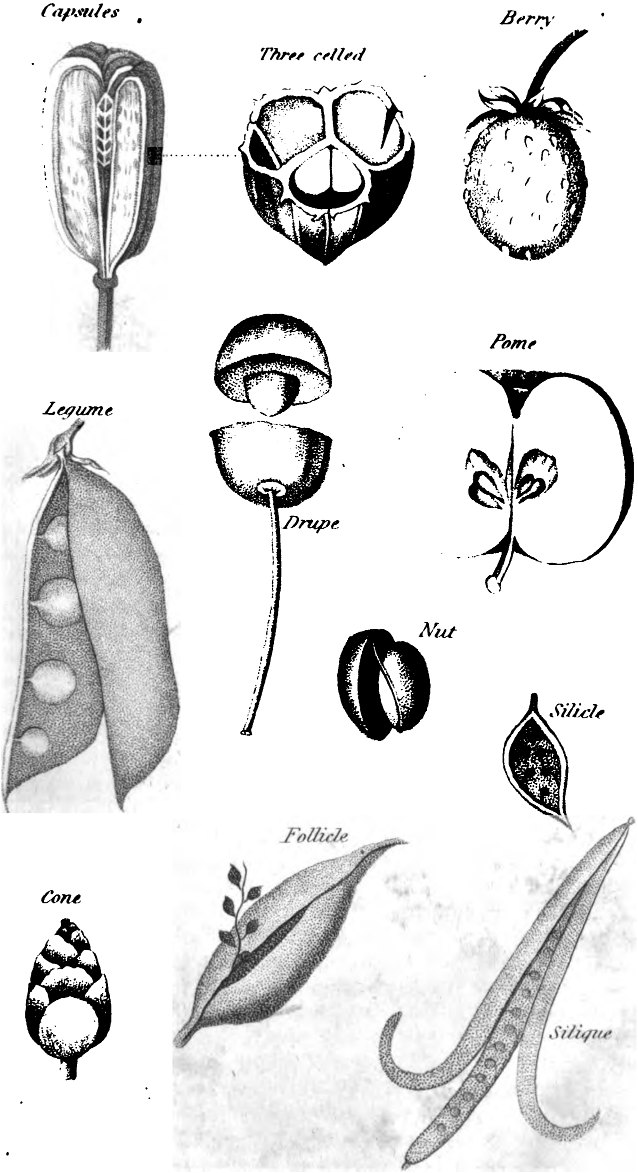
In the Mulberry and Strawberry the calyx becomes coloured and very juicy, surrounded by seeds like a real Berry. Some botanists, in describing the Strawberry, say that what is commonly called the Berry, is but a pulpy receptacle, studded with naked seeds. In the Fig the whole fruit is a juicy calyx, or common receptacle, containing in its cavity innumerable florets, each of which has a proper calyx of its own, which becomes pulpy, and invests the seed, as in the Mulberry. The Paper Mulberry of China, which is analogous to it, is an intermediate genus between the two, being, as it might seem, a Fig laid open, but without any pulp in the common receptacle.

9th. Strobilum, a cone, is a Catkin or Ament hardened and enlarged into a seed vessel, as in the Pine; this is called an aggregate, or compound pericarp.

In the most perfect examples of this kind of fruit the seeds are closely enveloped by the scales as by a capsule. The

PERICARPS

PLATE VIII



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Strobilum is *oblong* in the Pine, *round* in the Cypress, very small in the Alder and Birch.

The time for examining fruits is of course after the flowers have passed away. After you have read and understood the simple division which is here given, you will not generally be at a loss to which of these classes to refer them, when you see an Apple, a Walnut, a Currant, or a Pine Apple. You may also gratify the mental appetite by examining their appearance with an inquiring eye. It would seem more rational for young persons to examine the number of cells or seeds in an Apple, with a view to a classical arrangement, than to count the seeds with the foolish idea that there was some charm in a certain number which would throw light upon their future destiny.

LECTURE XV.

The Seed.

We have now traced the plant from the root through all its various organs, until we have arrived at that part, which is a link in the chain of vegetable existence between the old and new plant; if this were destroyed, if the seeds of plants were no longer perfected, what changes would the whole face of nature present. The earth would be in one year stripped of the whole tribe of annual plants; in another the biennial plants would vanish, leaving a still more cheerless vacancy; the perennial would year after year disappear until (if we could suppose our own lives to be prolonged in such a strange state of nature,) we should behold the earth one vast scene of vegetable ruin; occasionally here and there a venerable oak or an ancient pine would stand in solitary grandeur, the mournful remnants of the once beautiful and fertile vegetable kingdom.

But such a sad spectacle the earth will never present, for we have the promise of God himself, that "Seed time and harvest shall continue unto the end of the world."

We have seen in the progress of our inquiries, that while the present plant is diffusing around it beauty and fragrance, administering to the necessities and luxuries of man, the watchful care of that Being who never slumbers nor sleeps, is by a slow but certain progress perfecting that part which is destined to continue the species. "The seed is the sole end and aim of all the organs of fructification."* It is usually very small and apparently an inconsiderable part of the fruit, but it contains the rudiment or beginning of a new plant.

The Seed consists of three parts, viz. the **Eye**, **Husk**, and **Kernel.**

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* Linnæus.

The Kernel consists of the **White**, **Yolk**, **Cotyledon**, and **Embryo.**

The **Embryo** consists of the **Plume** or ascending part, and the **Radicle** or descending part.

1. **Eye** or **Hilum** is a scar formed by the breaking off or separating of the membrane to which the seed was attached, and by which it received its nourishment while in the pericarp. This part is more or less conspicuous in different seeds. In the garden bean it is very large and commonly called the Eye.
2. **The Skin or Husk** separates itself from many seeds, on their being boiled; as in Peas, Beans, and Indian corn; this skin appears to consist of an outward coat or shell, and an internal membrane. These coats surround the kernel. The shell is deemed an essential part of the seed, because the kernel, which originally was wholly fluid, could not have been formed unless a coat had been placed round it.
3. **Kernel.** We will next consider the four divisions of the Kernel.

1st. The *White* of the seed or *Albumen*, is that part of the kernel which invests the cotyledons or lobes, and is thought to afford the same support to the germinating embryo, that the white of an egg does to a chicken. Both in respect to hardness and colour, the Albumen in many seeds, greatly resembles the white of a boiled egg. It is not considered an essential part of the seed, because it is sometimes wanting; but when present it supports and defends the embryo, while imprisoned in the seed, and serves for nutriment when it begins to germinate. It has no connexion with the embryo and is always so distinct as to be easily detached from it. The Albumen makes up the chief part of some seeds, as the Grasses, Corn, &c. In the Nutmeg it is remarkable for its variegated appearance and aromatic quality.

2d. *Yolk.*[*] This occurs between the embryo and the white, and is so closely connected with the former, that it cannot easily be separated. It does not escape from the shell during germination, nor does it become a seminal or seed leaf; but like the white, it is entirely converted into the nourishment of the young plant. In the Grasses this organ appears like a mere scale to which the embryo is attached on one side, and the albumen on the other.

3d. *Cotyledons*, are thick fleshy lobes of seeds: in Beans they grow out of the ground in the form of two large leaves. They are the first visible leaves in all seeds; almost always fleshy and spongy, of a substance succulent and nourishing, which serves for the food of the young plant at the moment of its shooting forth or germinating; nature seems to have provided the cotyledons to nourish the young plant in its tender infancy. After seeing their young charge sufficiently vigorous to sustain life without their assistance, the cotyledons, in most plants wither and die.

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[*] Vitellus.

The number of Cotyledons varies in different plants, and there are some plants which have none.

Acotyledons, are those which have no cotyledons in their seeds; such as the Cryptogamous plants, Mosses, &c.

Mono-cotyledons, such as have one cotyledon or lobe in the seed; as the Grasses, the Liliaceous plants, &c.

Di-cotyledons, seeds with two cotyledons, they include the greatest proportion of vegetables; as the Leguminous, the Syngenesious, &c.

Poly-cotyledons. Those plants the seeds of which have more than two lobes, the number of these is small; the Hemlock and the Pine are examples.

The number of Cotyledons seldom varies in the same family of plants, it has therefore been assumed by some botanists as the basis of classification; but there are difficulties attending a method wholly dependant on these organs. In order to be certain as to their number, it is necessary to examine the seed in a germinating state, which must often be difficult. The natural method of Jussieu is founded upon the number of Cotyledons.

4th. *Embryo, or germ of the seed.* This is the most important part of the seed, as it forms the new plant; all other parts of the seed seem but subservient to this. The Embryo has been called the *Corculum*, (little heart,) being the point from whence the life and organization of the future plant originate. In the Walnut, the Bean, and Pea, the Embryo, may be plainly discovered. Its internal structure, before it begins to vegetate, is very simple, consisting of a uniform substance, enclosed in its appropriate bark or skin. When the vital principal is excited to action, vessels are formed and parts developed which seemed not previously to have existed. The Embryo is usually central and enclosed by the lobes, (Cotyledons,) sometimes it is no more than a mere point or dot, and in some cases altogether invisible to the naked eye. The Embryo consists of two parts.

1st. The *Plume*, which is the ascending part, unfolding itself into herbage.

2d. The *Radicle*, or descending part which unfolds itself into roots.

An ancient botanist, after describing the embryo, observes, "such are the various modifications of the tender embryo; it continues imprisoned within its seed, and remains in a profound sleep, until awakened by the approaching germination, it meets the light and air to grow into a plant, similar to its parent."

> "Lo! on each seed, within its slender rind,
> Life's golden threads in endless circles wind:
> Maze within maze the lucid webs are roll'd,
> And as they burst, the living flame unfold.
> The pulpy acorn, ere it swells, contains
> The oak's vast branches in its milky veins,
> Each ravel'd bud, fine film, aud fibre-line,
> Traced with nice pencil on the small design.
> The young Narcissus, in its bulb compress'd,
> Cradles a second nestling on its breast;
> In whose fine arms a younger embryo lies,
> Folds its thin leaves, and shuts its floret-eyes;
> Grain within grain successive harvests dwell,
> And boundless forests slumber in a shell."*

Appendages to the seeds.

There are various appendages which may, or may not be present without injury to the structure of the seed.

Aigrette or *Egret* is a kind of feathery crown with which many of the compound flowers are furnished, evidently for the purpose of disseminating the seed to a considerable distance by means of winds; as the Dandelion. It includes all that remains on the top of the seed after the corolla is removed.

Stipe is a thread connecting the egret with the seed. The egret is said to be *sessile* when it has no stipe. *Simple* when it consists of a bundle of hairs without branches. *Plumose* when each hair has other little hairs arranged along its sides, like the beards on a feather. There are other appendages to seeds, which, when you analyze compound flowers it will be important to notice; but when you meet with words which you do not understand, you must refer to the vocabulary of botanical terms.

General Remarks upon Seeds.

The number of seeds in different plants is variable; some have but one, some have two, which is the case with the Umbelliferous plants; some have four, as in the rough leaved plants; and in the order Gymnospermia of the class Didynamia, there are four lying naked in each calyx. The number varies from these to thousands. A stalk of Indian corn is said to have produced in one season two thousand seeds. A Sunflower four thousand. A capsule of the Poppy has been found to contain eight thousand seeds. It has been calculated that a single Thistle seed will produce at the first crop, twenty-four thousand, and at the second crop, at this rate, five hundred and seventy-six millions.

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* These lines which so beautifully set forth the manner in which the embryo is contained within the seed or bulb, are not entirely philosophical as to the fact of the future generations lying enfolded the one within the other; it is true, that we may in many seeds, by the help of a microscope, discern the form of the future plant, and even the embryo flower; but we cannot believe that, in the seed of that embryo flower, is the miniature image of another plant, which contains another, and so on through successive generations; for the fact is established that a seed does not produce a plant without being fertilized by the pollen. We may say that a seed contains within itself the *elements* of future generations; but not their *images*, except that of the immediate plant which is to issue from the perfected seed.

In the same species of plants the number of seeds is often found to vary. The Apple, and many others might be given as examples. The seeds also vary in size, and have been divided into four kinds. *Large*, from the size of a Walnut, to that of the Cocoa nut; *Middle* size, neither larger than a Hazel nut, nor smaller than a Millet seed; *Small*, between the size of the seeds of a Poppy and a Bell flower; *Minute*, like dust or powder, as in the Ferns and Mosses.

When a pericarp separates itself from the parent plant, or when the valves of the fruit open, this is not the effect of vital activity, but a proof that the fruit has ceased to vegetate. The fruit, like the leaves, at the end of autumn, losing the vital principle, is submitted to the laws which govern inorganized matter.

The period in which the seeds arrive at maturity, marks the period of the life of annual plants, and the suspension of vegetation in woody and perennial plants. Nature in favouring this dispersion by every means, presents phenomena worthy of our admiration, and these means are as varied as the species of seeds which are spread upon the surface of the earth.

The atmosphere, winds, rivers, seas, and animals of all species, transport the seeds and disperse them in every direction. The seeds provided with feathery crowns, (egrets,) as the Dandelion and Thistle; with wings, as the Maple and Ash, are raised into the air and even carried across the seas. Linnæus asserted that the ERIGERON *canadense* was introduced into Europe from America, by seeds wafted across the Atlantic Ocean. "The seeds," says Linnæus, "embark upon the rivers which descend from the highest mountains of Lapland, and arrive at the middle of the plains, and the coasts of the seas. The ocean has thrown even upon the coasts of Norway, the nuts of the mahogany, and the fruit of the Cocoa nut-tree, borne on its waves from the far distant tropical regions; and this wonderful voyage has been performed without injury to the vital energy of the seeds."

Some fruits endowed with great elasticity throw their seeds to a considerable distance. In the Oat, and in the greater number of Ferns, this elasticity is in the calyx. In the *Impatiens*, in the Cucumber, (*Cucumis*,) and many others, it resides in the capsule. The pericarp of the Impatiens, consists of one cell with five divisions; each of which when the seeds are ripe, upon being touched, suddenly folds itself in a spiral form, leaps from the stem, and scatters by means of its elastic property, its seeds to a great distance. Dr. Darwin describes this phenomenon, in the following poetical, though extravagant manner.

> "With fierce distracted eye Impatiens stands,
> Swells her pale cheeks, and brandishes her hands;
> With rage and hate the astonished groves alarms,
> And hurls her infants from her frantic arms."

Animals also perform their part in the diffusion of seeds. Squirrels and other animals carry seeds and nuts into holes in the earth. The Indians believe that the squirrels plant all the timber of the country, though this may be an exaggeration, there is no doubt but that they do much towards diffusing different kinds of nuts and seeds; as Chesnuts, Oak, Walnut, &c. Animals contribute to the distribution of seeds by having them attach themselves to their wool, fur, or feathers. Although distance, chains of mountains, rivers, and even seas, do not oppose obstacles sufficient to prevent the dispersion of vegetables, *climate* fixes an eternal barrier which plants cannot pass. It is not unlikely but in future times the greater part of vegetable tribes which grow between the same parallels of latitude, will be common to all countries of that zone; this may be the result of the industry of man, aided by the efficient means which nature takes to promote the same object in the dissemination of seeds; but no human power can ever cause to grow within the polar circles, the vegetables of the tropics, or those of the poles at the equator. Nature is here stronger than man. That something may be done by art to promote the growth of the tropical plants in our climates is true, but how different are the same plants with us, from what they are in their own genial climate; we toil and watch for years to nurture an Orange or Lemon tree, which after all is stinted in its growth, while in its own native home it would have grown spontaneously, in luxuriant beauty.

The diffusion of the seeds completes the circle of vegetation and closes the scene of vegetable life.

The shrubs and trees have lost their foliage—the withered herbs are decomposed, and restore to the earth the elements which they have drawn from its bosom. The earth stripped of its beauty, seems sinking into old age; but although unseen by us, and umarked the processes of nature by too many among men, innumerable germs have formed, which wait but the favourable warmth to decorate with new brilliancy this terrestrial scene.

So fruitful is nature, that a surface a thousand times more extended than that of our globe, would not be sufficient for the vegetables which the seeds of one single year would produce, if all should be developed; but the destruction of seeds is very great, either eaten by animals, or left to perish in unfavourable situations. Those which are preserved constitute but a small proportion of the whole. These either carried into the clefts of rocks, or buried beneath the ruins of vegetables, protected from the cold, remain inactive during the winter season, and germinate as soon as the early warmth of spring is felt. Then the botanist who considers with a curious eye the vegetable species with which the earth begins to be clothed, seeing successively all the types or representations of past generations of plants, admires the power of the Author of nature, and the immutability of His laws.

LECTURE XVI.

Germination of the Seed—Bark—Wood, and Pith.

We have now considered the various organs of plants, we have traced them through their successive stages of developement, from the root to the bud, the leaf and flower, from the flower to the fruit and seed. We have seen in imagination the vegetable world fading under the change of temperature; were this appearance of death in the vegetable world presented to us for the first time, how gloomy would be the prospect. How little should we expect its return to life and beauty, and fragrance! No power short of Omnipotence could effect such wonders! But we are now so accustomed to these changes, that "seeing we perceive not." We do not think of the Mighty Worker of these miracles, we call them the operations of nature. And what is nature or what are the laws of nature but manifestations of the Almighty? We are sometimes liable to be led into scepticism by the word nature, w hichbeing so vague in its meaning, may signify any thing, and thus we gradually accustom ourselves to affix to it no meaning at all.

How beautifully is this reanimation of the vegetable world brought by St. Paul, as an illustration of our resurrection from the dead. The same power which from a small, dry, or apparently dead seed, can cause to be brought forth a fresh and beautiful plant, can also produce from the ruins of our mortal bodies, a new and glorious body, and unite it to the immortal spirit by ties never to be separated.

Germination. The process of the shooting forth of the seed is termed Germination. All the parts of the seed before this period, are in a state of inaction in the bosom of the earth; until swollen by moisture, and animated by heat, the embryo bursts its teguments or outward coats, the lobes separate, the radicle extends itself into the earth, and the plume rises towards its surface. We say then that the seed has come up or sprouted. The radicle, or descending root, is usually the first to break through the coats of the seeds; it commences its journey downwards to seek in the earth nourishment for the future plant, and to fix it firmly in the earth. This constitutes the root and always takes a downward course in whatever situation the seed may have been placed in the ground. A botanist once planted in a pot six acrons with the point of their embryos upwards. At the end of two months upon removing the earth, he found that all the radicles had made an angle to reach downwards. It is supposed that if the root met with no obstruction in going downwards it would be perfectly straight. If you put some cotton wool into a tumbler of water and place upon it some seeds of Rye or Wheat, or seeds which soon vegetate, you will see all the fibres shooting from the seeds downwards in a perpendicular direction. It is a very simple and interesting experiment. Some ascribe this phenomenon, of the root extending into the earth, to the laws of gravitation, by which the root is attracted towards the centre of the earth; others say that the radicle stimulated by moisture, extends itself in the natural direction from which the moisture proceeds; and some imagine that the plant is endowed with a kind of instinct, similar to that which often appears in animals from their first moments of existence, leading the little duck to seek the water and birds to attempt to fly; but let us call this power by what name we will, or refer it to whatever secondary laws, we must after all, attribute it to the will and design of *Him* who gave the plant a principle of vitality.

After the young root has made some progress, the two lobes (Cotyledons) swell and expand, rising up out of the ground, forming two leaves called seed leaves, as you may recollect to have observed in the garden Bean, when it first appears above the ground.

You will recollect that the Embyro or germ is composed of two parts, the radicle and the plume. The radicle we have just seen extends itself downwards. Soon after this part of the germ has begun its downward course, the plume, (so called from its resemblance to a little feather,) rises upwards, and soon becomes a tuft of young leaves, with which the stem, if there is one, ascends. As particular examples often impress themselves more strongly upon the mind, than general principles, we will quote the following article from Sumner's Botany. "Some Rye was planted in a good soil, and at the end of the second day its radicle was discernable. At the end of twenty-four hours the embryo had escaped from its integument. On the second day the fibres of the root had augmented, but the leaves had not appeared. On the fourth day the first leaf began to appear above the ground, at which time the colour was red. On the fifth day, it had grown to the length of an inch, and its colour was now green, and on the sixth day the second leaf had appeared."

But Rye has only one Cotyledon, and this does not rise out of the ground, therefore the Mono-cotyledons, or plants with one Cotyledon, have seed leaves.

You may ask, why do not the same laws which carry the radicle downwards, carry the plume in the same direction? It is because air is necessary to the growth and developement of the herbage, and the same ALL SEEING POWER directs this part upward, which impels the radicle downward.

When the Cotyledons have performed their office of nourishing the young shoot, they wither and die.

SEASON OF GERMINATION.

There is a great difference in plants as to their time of germinating; some seeds begin to vegetate before they are separated from the pericarp.*

In the greater number of vegetables, however, there is no germination until after the opening of the pericarp and the fall of the seed. The time at which different species of seeds, after being committed to the earth, begin to vegetate, varies from one day to some years. The seeds of grasses, and the grain like plants, as rye, wheat, corn, &c. germinate within two days. The Cruciform plants, such as radish, and mustard, the Leguminous, as the pea and bean, require a little more time. The peach, walnut, and peony, remain in the earth a year before they vegetate.

All kinds of plants germinate sooner if they are sown immediately after being separated from their pericarps.

Most vegetables preserve their vital principle for years; some lose it as soon as they are detached from their pericarps. This is said to be the case in the coffee and tea. The seeds of some of the grasses, as wheat, &c. are said to retain their vital principle even for centuries. It is asserted that mosses kept for near two hundred years in the herbariums of botanists, have seemed to revive by being soaked in water. An American writer says, that "seeds, if imbedded in stone or dry earth, and removed from the influence of air or moisture, might be made to retain their vegetative quality or principle of life for a thousand years." But he very rationally adds, "life is a property which we do not understand; yet life, however feeble and obscure, is always life, and between it and death there is a distance as great as existence and non-existence."

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* In the month of January, on observing the seeds of a very juicy apple which had been kept in a warm cellar, I saw that they were swollen, and that the outward coat had burst; examining one seed by removing the tegument, and separating the Cotyledons, I saw by the help of a microscope the embryo as if in a germinating state: the radicle was like a little beak; in the upper part or plume was plainly to be seen the tuft of leaves and the stem.

You perhaps are surprised that so much can be said about things which may never have appeared strange or interesting to you before, and yet we do but glance at the different subjects as we proceed. We have said very little about the anatomy and physiology of plants, although they present a wide field for investigation.

When you looked at the trunk of a tree, a little herb, or a leaf, you perhaps considered it as very simple in its structure. You saw it only as one mass; but you now perceive that plants, like animals, are a collection of fibres; that they have parts which are analogous to our skin, bones, flesh, and blood; that they are living, organized beings, composed of solid and fluid parts, and like animals, the subjects of life and death.

Plants differ from animals in not possessing any of the organs of sense. They can neither see, hear, taste, smell, nor touch. Some vegetables, however, seem to have a kind of sensibility* like that derived from the organs of touch; they tremble and shrink back upon coming in contact with other substances; some turn themselves round to the sun, as if enjoying its rays. There is a mystery in these circumstances which we cannot penetrate, and it is not yet fully known at what point in the scale of existence animal life ends, and vegetable life commences. Some animals, like the sponge and corals, seem almost destitute of any kind of sensation, and yet they are ranked in the animal kingdom.

On the subject of the distinctions and analogies between plants and animals, we shall dwell more fully hereafter.

We have now examined all the organs of plants as to their external appearance; we have considered briefly the anatomical structure of the leaf; we will now remark some of the most striking characters of the general anatomy of the plant, in doing which we shall repeat some of the terms used in examining the structure of the leaf; for as there are some general terms and principles which would apply alike to the anatomy of one of our limbs as well as to our whole body; so the anatomy of a leaf is, in some degree, similar to that of any other part of the plant.

BARK.

The vegetable body consists of the *Bark*, *Wood*, and *Pith*.

I. **Bark** is composed of the Epidermis or Cuticle, Cellular integument, or Liber, and Cortex.

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* The term irritability is perhaps more proper than sensibility.

1st. *Epidermis* is the skin or membrane which extends over the surface of every vegetable. It is also called the *cuticle*, a name which anatomists have given to the external covering of the animal body. There is a striking analogy between the animal and vegetable cuticle or skin. In the animal it varies in thickness from the delicate film which covers the eye, to the hard skin of the hand or foot—the coarser covering of the ox, or the hard shell of the tortoise. In the vegetable it is exquisitely delicate, as in the covering of a Rose leaf, and hard and coarse in the rugged coats of the Elm and Oak. In the Birch you may see the cuticle or outer bark peeling off in circular pieces. The vital principle seems wanting in it; this is the only part of a living plant which is dead. The outer bark serves for protection from external injuries, and regulates the proportion of absorption and perspiration through its pores. It is transparent as well as porous, so as to admit the free access of light and air, while it excludes every substance which would be injurious to vegetation.

It is to the cuticle of Wheat, Oats, Rye, and some of the grasses that we are indebted for the straw and Leghorn hats. The straws in their manufacture are scraped, so as to have nothing left but the outside, or the cuticle. It has been ascertained that the outer bark of many of the grasses contains silex, or flint; in the Scouring Rush, (*Equisetum*,) the quantity of silex is such that housekeepers find it an excellent substitute for sand in scouring wood or metals.

A singular property of the cuticle is, that it does not seem to be subject to the same changes as the other parts of bodies; it is of all substances found upon animal or vegetable matter, the least indestructible.

The cuticle is sometimes like the skin of animals, clothed with wool or down, and it then becomes an important security against the effects of heat and cold. The leaf of the Mullein has its cuticle covered with a kind of wool; in the Peach it is downy.

2d. *Cellular Integument.* Immediately under the cuticle or outer bark, we find a soft juicy coat, called the cellular integument or coat of cells. This is the seat of colour, and in this respect analogous to the *cutis*, or true skin of animals, which is the substance situated under the cuticle, and is black in the Negro, red in the Indian, and pale in the American. In the leaves of vegetables, the cellular integument is green, in the flowers and fruits it is of various colours. Leaves consist almost entirely of plates of this substance, covered on each side with the cuticle. In this the principal changes are effected upon the juices of plants by light and air, and here their various secretions take place.

The petals of flowers are almost entirely composed of cellular texture, the cells of which are filled with juices fitted to refract and reflect the rays of light, so as to produce the brilliant and delicate tints which constitute so great a portion of their beauty. The fuci, a species of sea weed, and some other plants appear to be altogether composed of cellular texture.

3d. *Cortex, or True Bark.* Immediately under the cellular integument and next to the wood, we find the true bark, which in plants or branches that are only one year old, consists of one simple layer; but in the old branches and trunks of trees, it consists of as many layers as they are years old. The bark appears to be formed of bundles of longitudinal fibres called cortical vessels.

In the bark the peculiar virtues or qualities of particular plants chiefly reside. Here we find the resin of the fir, the astringent principle of the oak, and the aromatic oil of the cinnamon.

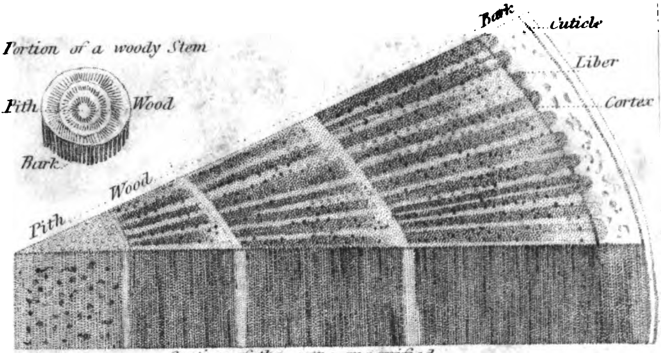
The inner layer of the bark or cortex is called *liber*, it is in this layer only that the essential vital functions are carried on; after a time it is pushed outward with the cellular integument, by the successive formation of new layers, and with the cellular integument finally becomes a lifeless crust. This integument is called *liber*, from its fine and thin plates, which are thought to bear some resemblance to the leaves of a book, (*liber*.) The natives of Otaheite manufacture garments from the liber of the mulberry. The liber of flax is by a more refined process converted into fine linen. This part of the bark is important to the life of vegetables; the outer bark may be peeled off without injury to them, but the destruction of the liber is generally fatal. The operation of *girdling* trees, which is often practised in new countries, consists, in making with an axe, one or more complete circles through the outer bark and the liber of the trunk. Trees seldom survive this operation, especially if it have been performed early in the spring, before the first flow of the sap from the root towards the extremities.

WOOD.

II. Wood. Immediately under the bark is situated the *wood* (Lignum) which forms the great bulk of trees and shrubs; when cut across, it is found to consist of numerous concentric layers. It is supposed that one of these circular layers is formed every year, the hard external part being caused by the cold of winter, and that the exact age of a sound tree may be known, by counting these rings. It is thought by some that wood is secreted or deposited from

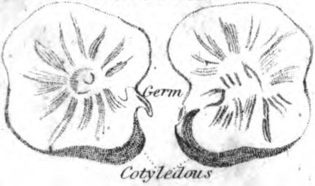
PLATE IX.

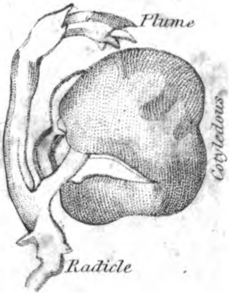
Portion of a woody Stem

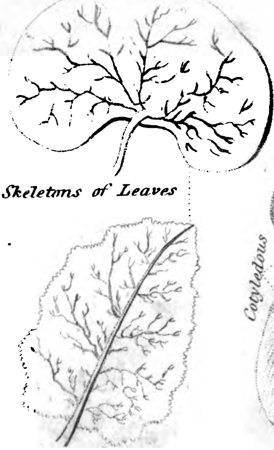


Section of the same, magnified

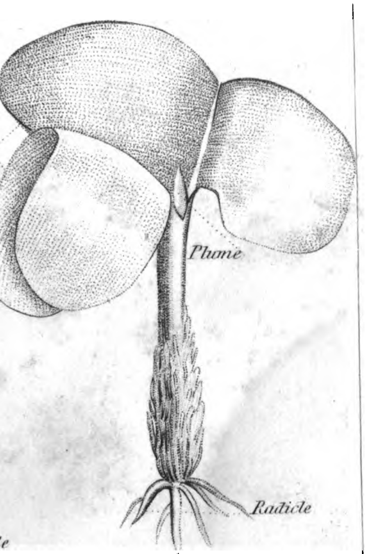
Bean divided



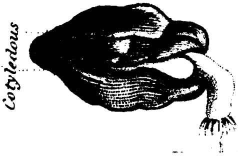




Skeletons of Leaves



Seed beginning to germinate



Illman & Pilbrow sc.

the innermost part. To prove this, pieces of metal have been introduced under the barks of trees that were growing, the wounds carefully bound up, and after some years on cutting them across, the layers of new wood have been found on the outside of the metal.

The strength and hardness of the wood is owing to innumerable woody fibres, and consists of vessels running for the most part longitudinally, some having a spiral coat, others not.

Of these vessels some contain sap and the various secreted juices; others perhaps contain air. You may easily examine the structure of a stem by cutting thin sticks cross wise, from the stalks of young plants, placing them against a pane of glass in a window, and examining the pores with a microscope.

In some trees, and particularly old ones, there are a number of external layers or grains of wood which differ greatly in colour, from the central ones, being much whiter; these are called the Sapwood, (Alburnum,) and the central or darker part is called the heart. The sapwood is the living and active part, while the heart possesses a very low degree of vitality. The heart wood is usually much more durable timber than the sap wood.

III. **Pith**, or *Medulla*. This is situated in the centre of the trunk and branches of plants, and is of a soft pithy substance analogous to the marrow of animals. Its texture is similar to that of the cellular integument, being composed of cells. These cells which are very large in the Elder, are filled with fluids when young, but in old branches the fluids disappear, and the empty cells only remain.

In general, herbs and shrubs have a greater proportion of pith than trees. It is also found more abundant in young than in old vegetables. With respect to the use and offices of the pith in the vegetable, botanists appear not to have a uniformity of opinion, and while so much remains for you to learn that is satisfactorily proved, we will not carry you into the mazy regions of conjecture and disputation.

PART III.

LECTURE XVII.

CLASSIFICATION.

Method of Tournefort.—System of Linnæus.—Natural Method of Classification.—Method of Jussieu.—Natural Method of Linnæus.

Let us now imagine the whole vegetable kingdom, comprising innumerable millions of plants, to be spread out before a botanist. Could he, in the course of the longest life, number each individual blade of grass, each little moss, each shrub, or even each tree? Much less could he give each one a separate *name* and description. But he does not need to name them separately, for he sees that they are by nature arranged into sorts or kinds. Thus any one Lily may represent all the Lilies, or any one Violet the whole family of Violets.

The whole number of species of plants which have been named and described, including the many which have been recently discovered in New Holland and about the Cape of Good Hope, is said to be 56,000.*

If the families of plants were described without any regular order, we could derive no pleasure, and very little advantage from the study of practical botany. If we wished to find out the name of a plant, we might be obliged to turn over the leaves of a large volume, without any rule to guide us in our search.

The necessity of some kind of system was so apparent, that many attempts for the methodical arrangement of plants were made before the time of Linnæus; but his system was so superior to all others, that it was no sooner published to the world, than it was adopted by the universal consent of all men of science.

Previous to this time, Tournefort, a native of France, had published an ingenious method of arrangement, beautiful by its simplicity, but imperfect, as it could not be made universal in its application.

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* According as recently reported by the Baron Humboldt, to the French National Institute.

He made twenty-two classes; these he subdivided into sections or orders.

The characters of this class were founded upon the *absence*, *presence*, and *form* of the corolla.

The first *seventeen* classes contained *herbs and shrubs.*

In the first four, were the *Bell-form*, the *Funnel-form*, the *Labiate*, and *Personate* corollas; these included herbs and shrubs with monopetalous flowers.

The seven following classes contained the *Cruciform*, *Rosaceous*, *Umbelliferous*, *Caryophyllous*, *Liliaceous*, *Papilionaceous*, and the *Anomalous*;* these included herbs and shrubs with polypetalous flowers.

The three following included varieties of the compound flowers.

The three next following, included herbs and shrubs which had,

1st. *Stamens without a corolla.*

2d. Such as had *no flower.*

3d. Such as had *neither flower* nor *fruit.*

These were the first seventeen classes of Tournefort, including only herbs and shrubs

Next followed his arrangement of large and small trees.

The eighteenth and nineteenth classes were *Apetalous*, corollas without petals, and *Amentaceous*, flowers in a catkin; as the Chesnut and Willow.

The twentieth contained such large and small *trees* as had *monopetalous corollas.*

The twenty-first and twenty-second contained such large and small *trees* as had corollas *Rosaceous;* as the Pear and the Lilac, or *Papilionaceous;* as the Locust tree, these had *polypetalous corollas.*

After having derived from the corolla the distinctions of the classes, Tournefort subdivided them into orders, or as he called them, sections. These orders were founded upon the consideration, of the pistil, of the calyx, of the fruit, &c.

The first step in this classification was wrong. The distinction between a small tree and shrub, cannot be accurately defined; there are many plants which we should doubt whether to class among large shrubs or small trees. Two circumstances were relied on as a foundation for this distinction. One was, that shrubs do not form buds for the future year; and another the size of the plant. With respect to the formation of buds, the distinction is not found to be invariable, as some shrubs do form buds, and some trees do not. With respect to size, the variation, even in the same species, is such, in different soils and situations, that it cannot be admitted as a mark of distinction.

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* Such as are irregular and cannot be compared to any other known form; as the violet.

In many genera of plants, different species will have at the same time woody and herbaceous stems. The form of the corolla is not to be depended on; even in the most natural families of plants, we find the flowers of different forms, as in different species in the natural order Solaneæ, where the Mullein is wheel-form, the Tobacco funnel-form, and the Atropa bell-form.

SYSTEM OF LINNÆUS.

The removing of plants which are nearly allied in their natural character, to different classes, by means of any artificial principle of classification, ought as far as possible to be avoided; and although the system of Linnæus, as you will find, when we compare it with natural families, is not wholly free from this confusion; it is much more so than any other which has been invented.

Although we do not now receive the method of Tournefort, for practical uses, a knowledge of it may extend your views of botanical science. When we accustom ourselves to take but one view of a subject, we are in danger of acquiring a contracted mode of thought. We are not to suppose that the system of Linnæus is entirely perfect; but may well imagine that men of science will arise, who shall discover principles now hidden, and look back upon what they will call, the very imperfect state of our sciences. We should rejoice that the human race is thus destined to a degree of improvement beyond our highest powers of calculation.

"What should we think of a savage, if, in the pride of his ignorance, he was to conceive his own thoughts and feelings to be the noblest of which the human intellect is capable? And perhaps even the mind of a Newton, is but the mind of such a savage compared to what man is hereafter to become."*

The system† of Linnæus has already in its principal features been laid before you, in the views of artificial classes and orders. This system not only includes within *it* all known plants, but is founded on such principles as must comprehend within it whatever plants may yet be discovered. The author of this system believed that no plant was destitute of stamens and pistils: but at the same time, that there were species in which these organs were so small, so obscure, or of such a singular formation as to render it difficult, and sometimes impossible to be certain of their existence, except by the principle of analogy. Therefore, he made the two grand divisions of plants *Phenogamous*, such as have stamens and pistils *visible*, and *Cryptogamous*, stamens and pistils *invisible*.*

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* Brown.

† *System* differs from *method*, in having but one single primitive character, and in founding its principal divisions upon the consideration of only one single organ or principle. Linnæus has founded his system upon the consideration of the *stamens* as more or less numerous, upon their proportion, connexion, and their absence. Newton founded his system of Natural Philosophy upon *attraction;* the *vital principle* is the foundation of all systems of Physiology. *Method* is not confined to the consideration of one character, it employs all such as are conspicuous and invariable; this is called the Natural Method, and system is called the Artificial Method. Linnæus published his system of Botany in 1734, nearly half a century after Tournefort.

The following comparison has been very properly given by Botanists, as an illustration of the divisions in the system of Linnæus.

Classes are compared	to States.
Orders	to Towns or Cities.
Genera	to Families.
Species	to Individuals.

You must not forget while considering this system, that plants themselves are the only real substances; Species, Genus, Order, and Class, are mere abstract terms, denoting certain distinctions which would equally have existed, although we had never observed them, or given them names.

An *Individual* is an organized being complete in its parts, distinct and separate from all other beings. An Oak, a Rose, and a Moss, are each of them individuals of the vegetable kingdom.

Species include such individuals as agree in certain circumstances of the roots, stems, leaves, and inflorescence. We have no reason to suppose that any new species, either of animals or vegetables, have been produced since the creation. We sometimes see *varieties* made by cultivation; the stamens and pistils, from excess of nourishment, expanding into petals. Varieties are also occasioned by strewing the pollen from one species, upon the stigma of another; but these varieties do not produce perfect seed, and therefore cannot reproduce themselves by their seed. The colour, taste, and size, are not considered as marks of specific difference.

A *Genus* comprehends one or more species grouped together on account of some resemblance in situation, proportion, and connexion of the organs which constitute the flower.

Any one species of a genus may be regarded as a type or example of the others; we may easily refer species which we have not studied to their proper genus, by a knowledge of any one species of that genus. Some genera appear to be distinctly marked by nature; the various species of the Rose, form a beautiful genus which is known to all, although every one might not be able to describe it to others, in such a manner as to be understood; it is chiefly distinguished by its urn-shaped and fringed calyx.

The Generic names of plants are sometimes expressive of some peculiarity of form, colour, or other properties. Thus Iris (Flag,) is named from Iris the rain bow, on account of its various shades of colour.

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* Mirbel, a French Botanist, believes there are some plants absolutely destitute of stamens and pistils; these he calls *agamous*.

Digitalis (Fox-glove,) named from *digitus*, a finger, on account of the shape of its corolla, like the finger of a glove. Convallaria (Lily of the Valley,) named from a Latin word *convallis*, signifying valley.

Teucrium (Germander,) named in honour of Teucer, a Trojan prince who is said to have discovered this plant. The English name, Germander, is supposed to have originated from the word Scamander, the name of a river of ancient Troy.

The name of the great Linnæus is commemorated in a beautiful but modest flower, called the Linnæa borealis,* or the northern Linnæus.

NATURAL METHOD OF CLASSIFICATION.

The naturnal method consists in bringing together such plants as seem by nature to be constituted one family, resembling each other in general appearances and medicinal qualities; as lilies, herbs, trees, mosses and ferns. Some of these natural families show a similarity in form and quality, and are evidently distinct from all others. If the whole vegetable kingdom could thus be distributed into natural tribes, we should need no other system than that of nature. But as we proceed on this plan we soon find difficulties; for after selecting a few families which nature seems to have formed with striking marks of resemblance, we find others more obscure, and we at length see a vast number of plants which cannot be referred to any natural families.

There are two natural methods of Classification in use at present, one by Linnæus, the other by Jussieu; the arrangement of the latter is highly valuable to those who wish to pursue the study of Medicinal Botany.

The characters employed in this method are,

1. The structure of the Seed.
2. Insertion of the Stamens.
3. Absence, presence, and form of the Corolla.
4. Union or separation of Stamens and Pistils.
5. Union or separation of the Anthers.

These characters are thus considered.

1. *The Seed*, considered as without *Cotyledons*,* with one, or with two Cotyledons. A plant without cotyledons is called *A'cotyledonous*, with 1, *Mono'cotyledonous*, and with 2, *Di'cotyledonous*.

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* This plant is not common in this country, it has been found on an island, in the Hudson near Troy.

† The Cotyledons are the thick parts of the seed; an apple seed, an orange seed, or a bean, may be easily split into two parts, these are the cotyledons; rice and wheat cannot be thus split, they have but one cotyledon.

2. The *Stamens* are inserted *upon* the germ, *under* the germ, or *around* the germ; the 1st is *Epi'gynous*, the 2d, *Hypo'gynous*, the 3d *Peri'gynous*.

3. *A'petalous*, having no corolla, *Mono'petalous*, all of one piece, or *Poly'petalous*, many petals.

4. *Mono'clinious*, Stamens and Pistils on the same corolla, *Di'clinious*, Stamens and Pistils on different corollas.

5. Anthers *distinct*, or anthers *joined*.

The Natural Orders of Jussieu are 100, they are comprehended under 11 classes, besides the class which have no cotyledons; these last are the Cryptogamous plants of Linnæus, they are as yet, obscure and undefined in many particulars.

The plants which have but one cotyledon are divided into 3 classes, they include the grasses, the palms, liliaceous plants, &c.

The plants with two cotyledons are divided into 2 classes; these include all remaining plants, except some genera which appear so ambiguous in their character, as to render it doubtful where to give them a place in the Natural Orders.

In the three methods of classification which we have now examined, the most important characters of the plant have been presented, under circumstances, calculated to give you more clear ideas of them than could have been obtained from a consideration of any one method alone.

Tournefort makes you acquainted with the different appearances of the corolla.

Linnæus, of the stamens and pistils,

Jussieu, of the cotyledons and insertions.

A botanist,* in comparing these different methods, remarks that the method of Tournefort cannot be used because the forms of corollas vary into each other; that of Jussieu, considered as a study in itself, is much too abstract; the number of cotyledons, generally speaking, is an excellent character, but you cannot in the beginning appreciate its value; and as to insertion, botanists themselves are sometimes embarrassed to decide respecting it. This method, although much praised, has been little used; on the contrary, (as the same author observes,) the method of Linnæus has been for half a century the foundation of all teaching. The new species discovered have been arranged according to its principles of classification, and all catalogues of plants and floras† have taken this method for their guide.

The characters which it uses are very apparent, and as it refers to the *number* of parts, rather than to their *forms* or *insertion*, it offers to the mind something positive, which is not found either in the method of Tournefort, or that of Jussieu. Between a corolla, bell form or funnel form, there are many intermediate forms which may be as much like one as the other. The insertions *over* the germ or *under* the germ are distinct, but these are the two opposites; between them is the insertion *around* the germ, which sometimes blends with one, sometimes with the other. But between *one* or *two stamens*, or *one* or *two pistils*, there is *no intermediate step*, or gradual blending of distinctions, which leaves you in doubt whether the case before you belongs to the one or the other.

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* Mirbel.

† The term flora is often used for the title of a book describing plants. The ancient heathens imagined a goddess called Flora, who they thought presided over flowers.

The natural orders of Linnæus are fifty-eight; they are not founded upon any one discriminating principle, but upon general marks of resemblance. This great man did not view his *Natural Orders* as approaching to a perfect classification; he modestly termed them "Fragments of a natural method." As every thing left by him on the subject of Botany seems deserving of consideration, his Natural Orders are preserved as a relic, which it would be almost sacrilege to destroy; there is in them more of simplicity than in those of Jussieu, and they may be better understood by the young student. We have given them a place with the Natural Orders of Jussieu in the first part of our course.

Linnæus, in his "Philosophy of Botany," has established these kinds of characters to be used in descriptions of plants.

1. *Factitious* or *made*. That which is, by agreement, taken as a mark of distinction: this, then, being not established by nature, but by man, is artificial, the characters of the stamens and pistils, as used for the arrangement of classes and orders, are Factitious.
2. *Essential Character*. This is that which forms a particular character of one genus, and distinguishes it from all other genera.
3. *Natural Character*. This is difficult to define, but it is that which is most felt and understood by all; it is the general aspect and appearance of the plant which enables all to make a kind of arrangement of plants in their own mind, although they would find it very difficult to convey their ideas or classification to others.

It is by their natural characters that persons who have never perhaps heard of such a science as Zoology, or the classification of animals, are enabled to distinguish ferocious beasts from domestic and gentle animals; they see a sheep or a cow, although that individual one they may never have seen before, without any terror, for nature teaches them at once to consider that as resembling other sheep and cows which they know to be inoffensive.

This natural character teaches savages to distinguish among the many plants of the forest, those which may administer to their wants and those which would be injurious.

Even the lowest grade of animals appear to have this faculty of selecting by natural characters nutritious substances, and avoiding noxious ones. How often do animals, feeding in pastures which contain poisonous plants, pass them by, to seek the grass which seems made for their use, and this instinct is kindly given for their preservation.

LECTURE XVIII.

Natural Families of Plants.—Liliaceous, Cruciform, and Papilionaceous Flowers.

We will now examine a few of the most Natural Families of plants with respect to their peculiarities of structure or external appearance: as the Liliaceous, the Cruciform, the Papilionaceous, the Labiate, the Umbellate, and the Syngenesious, or Compound. There are also many other natural families which exhibit striking marks of distinction from all others, but our limits will not permit us to consider them under separate heads. In treating upon the artificial classes, we shall have occasion also to notice the natural families.

A natural family is composed of several genera of plants which have some common marks of resemblance, and bearing a name founded upon this general character; as Labiate and Cruciform, which are derived from the form of the corollas; Umbellate and Corymbiferous, from the inflorescence; Leguminous from the nature of the fruit.

The natural families resemble the artificial orders in being composed of genera, but in the two cases they are brought together upon very different principles.

In the natural families, the classification is such as persons who have never studied botany, might make; thus, Dill, Fennel, Caraway, &c. belong to the Umbellate family, on account of the form in which the little stalks, bearing the flower, and afterwards the seed, branch out from one common centre, like the sticks of an umbrella; this general resemblance is observed by all, and it seems very natural to class them together.

But in the artificial orders, genera which may be very unlike in other respects, are brought together, from the single circumstance of their having the same number of stamens and pistils. Thus, in the first order of the 8th class, we have the Tulip and the Bulrush, the Lily of the valley and the Sweet flag.

In the second order of the 5th class we have the beet and the elm. You will at once perceive the striking disparity between these plants, and that an arrangement, which thus brings them together, is properly called an artificial method.

Many families of plants possess a marked resemblance in form and qualities, and appear evidently as distinct tribes. If the whole of the vegetable kingdom could thus be distributed into natural classes, the study of botany would be much simplified; but it has already been remarked that there are many plants which cannot be thus arranged, and no principle has yet been discovered for systematic arrangement which bears any comparison to the Artificial System.

Here plants may be conveniently arranged, like words in a dictionary, and thus easily found out and referred to their natural classes: no other system exists which can with certainty direct us to these classes.

In commencing our remarks upon some of the natural families, we will first consider the

LILIACEOUS FLOWERS.

These flowers consist of six petals, spreading gradually from the base, and exhibiting a kind of bell-form appearance, but differing from the bell-form flowers in being Polypetalous.

The number of stamens in the Liliaceous plants is generally six, sometimes but three, they are usually alternate with the petals.

The germ of the Liliaceous plants is always of a triangular form, and contains three cells; the roots are mostly bulbous. The Lily has a scaly bulb, the Onion a tunicated or coated bulb, the Tulip has a root which seems almost solid and tuberous.

The calyx is mostly wanting in the Liliaceous plants, the stems are simple, without branches, the leaves entire, and nerved. To this family belong the Tulip, Lily, Crown-imperial, Dog-tooth-violet, &c. Plants of this natural family usually belong to the class Hexandria, the Crocus having three stamens belongs to the class Triandria.

CRUCIFORM FLOWERS.

These are such flowers as have a calyx consisting of four leaves, and a corolla composed of four petals; each petal is fastened to the receptacle or bottom of the calyx by a narrow part called the claw. In the centre of the flower is a single pistil long and cylindrical; the stigma is oblong and divided into two parts, which are reflexed or bent back on each side. Each petal is placed between two leaves of the calyx; this alternate position is always seen in flowers where the number of petals equals the number of leaves of the calyx.

The cruciform flowers have six stamens, two of which standing opposite to each other are shorter than the remaining four, which always stand in pairs. This inequality in their length determines them to be in the class Tetradynamia. The germ soon becomes a long pod called a silique, or a short thick one, called silicula; this difference in the length of the two pods constitutes the distinction of the two orders of the class in which they are placed.

The plants belonging to this class are herbaceous, the leaves alternate, the Cabbage, the Mustard, the Raddish, and Stock-gilly-flower belong to this family. They are found on a chemical analysis to contain some sulphur.

PAPILIONACEOUS FLOWERS.

These are so called, from a Latin word *papilio*, a butterfly, on account of the supposed resemblance between them and that insect; they are generally flowers with brilliant colouring and of showy appearance. The Sweet-pea may be given as an example; this unites to delicacy of colour and beauty of form, a highly fragrant perfume.

The flowers belonging to this natural family are so peculiar in appearance as to make them easily recognized. The Rose, the Pink, and the Bell-flower, are regular in their form, that is, there is a symmetry and equality in their parts. In a regular corolla, we may suppose the point of a compass placed upon its centre, and a circle traced around the edge of the flower, each one of its divisions will just touch the circle. There may, however, be slight inequalities in regular corollas, as in the Lily we sometimes see some petals a little longer than the others, this is an exception to the general rule.

You must learn to distinguish between rules and exceptions; it is often owing to a want of this discrimination, that young persons find difficulties in understanding a science; they confound the rules and exceptions, thinking very erroneously, that the knowledge of the one, is as important as that of the other. If a clear conception of general rules be established in the mind, the exceptions, or variations will be gradually learned as you apply the rules to particular cases. But if you attempt at the commencement of the study of any science to learn all the exceptions as well as rules, you will never obtain clear ideas upon the subject.

You will recollect the general rules with respect to regular corollas. Irregular corollas differ so widely from these general rules, that you will be in little danger of mistaking them for exceptions; they constitute, indeed, a different natural family, though according to the artificial method of classification, they may often be placed near to regular corollas. Irregular corollas are various in their forms, the papilionaceous, which we are now considering, seem, as they stand upon their stem, to consist of an upper and under part. In examining a flower of this kind, a Pea for example, you should first observe the calyx, this is monophyllous, that is one entire leaf, ending in five distinct leafy points: the two upper ones wider than the three under ones. The calyx bends towards the lower part, as does also the peduncle, or little stalk which supports it. The peduncle is very small and flexible; so that the flower readily avoids a current of air, and turns its back to the wind and rain.

In examining the corolla you will see that it is *polypetalous*. The first piece is a large petal covering the others, and occupying the upper part of the corolla; it is called the *standard or banner*. This petal is evidently designed, to protect the stamens and other parts of the flower, from the injuries of the weather. Upon taking off the banner you will find that it is inserted by a little process, or projecting part into the side pieces so that it cannot be easily separated by winds. The banner being taken off, the two side pieces to which it adhered are exposed to view; these are called the *wings;* they are strongly inserted into the remaining part of the corolla, and their use appears to be, that of protecting the sides of the flower. Upon taking off the wings, you will discover the last piece of the corolla, called on account of its form, the *keel* or boat. This covers and protects the stamens and pistils. Upon drawing the keel downwards, you will find ten stamens, and double the number of petals; these stamens are joined together by the sides of their filaments, appearing like a cylinder surrounding the pistil. One of the stamens, however, does not adhere to the rest; but as the flower fades and the fruit increases, separates and leaves an opening at the upper side, through which the germ can extend itself by gradually opening the cylinder. In the early stage of the flower, this stamen will seem not to be separated; but by carefully moving it with a pin or needle, its filament will be found unconnected with the other nine.

Most of the papilionaceous plants belong to the class Diadelphia, order Decandria. The name of the class *Dis, two*, and *Adelphia brotherhood,* signifies that the stamens are in two sets or brotherhoods; that is, nine in one set and one in the other. The name Decandria signifies ten stamens.

But if the flower, although papilionaceous, should have ten stamens, all in one set, it is then placed in the class Decandria.

According to this arrangement, a very striking natural family of plants is widely separated, a part being taken from the 14th class and carried to the 10th.

The germ of the papilionaceous plant extends itself into that kind of pod called a *legume*. It is distinguished from the Silique of the cruciform family, by there being no partition in the legume. Besides, the seeds grow to one side only, being alter.

nately attached to the edges of the two valves; but in the silique pod they are alternately attached to both edges of the partition.

The legume also opens lengthwise and rolls backwards; in the silique, the valves separate and stand out from the base upwards. The seeds of this family as you have been already informed, have a marked scar, black spot or line called the *hilum*, by which they adhered to the pod. Near this scar there is a minute opening into the body of the seed, through which moisture is imbibed at the period of its first growth or germination. The proper germ, or that part of the seed which is to be the future plant, continues to swell and at length bursts through the coats of the seed, presenting between the divided halves the first true leaves, and the root, which commences its journey downwards. These divided halves of the seed are the cotyledons or seed leaves, they furnish support to the infant plant until it is sufficiently mature to seek its own support, and then they gradually decay.

The term Leguminous, which is taken from the fruit, as Papilionaceous is from the flower, is applied to the family of plants we are considering. In this family we find the fine table vegetables, Beans and Peas, the useful medicinal plant, the Liquorice, the fine colouring Indigo, the fragrant Clover, so grateful as food to many of the domestic animals, the splendid Locust tree, the elegant Lupine, and the delicate and odoriferous Sweet-pea.

LECTURE XIX.

Labiate Flowers.—Umbellate Plants.—Compound flowers.—Analysis of the Daisy.

The flowers belonging to this family are monopetalous, consisting of one piece, and are irregular in their outline and appearance. The term Labiate, derived from a Latin word *labia*, lips, has been given, on account of the flower appearing to be divided at the top into two parts, resembling the lips of a horse or other animal. This natural family is subdivided into *ringent* or *gaping*, where the entrance into the corolla is open, and *personate* or masked, where the corolla seems closed by a prominent throat or palate.

Botanists have made some confusion in the use of these terms. Linnæus called them all ringent or gaping, and then subdivided them into labiate, having lips, and personate, closed lips; most other botanists following him have continued to make the same division. You can easily see, that first, to take for a general term, having a gaping mouth or lips, and then to separate this class into those which have lips, and those which have lips closed, is inconsistent. Thus instead of following a rule with regard to definitions, that as we proceed in more minute divisions, each branch is to contain all the qualities of the whole, or of the generic term, and some property or properties added to mark a specific difference, in this case, the species *labiate* has a more *general* signification than the *generic* term *ringent.*

We shall then consider Labiate as the general term, and divide this tribe of plants into *ringent*, those that have *lips gaping*, and *personate*, or such as have the *lips closed* or muffled.*

The labiate flowers have mostly four stamens of unequal length, standing in pairs, beneath an arch in the upper lip of the corolla. On account of this circumstance, they are ranked in the class Didynamia. A few of the Labiate plants have but two stamens, and on that account, are placed in the class Diandria, as the Sage and Mountain mint (Monarda.) Here again the artificial system separates a tribe, which nature has made strikingly similar. If you examine a flower of this family, the Balm or Catmint, you will notice the arched upper lip of the petal covering the stamens, and that the lower lip hangs down so that you can see the inside of the corolla. If you pull out the corolla you will take the stamens along with it, the filaments being attached to it, as they usually are to monopetalous corollas. The corolla has a circular opening at the bottom, through which the pistil grew from the receptacle.

You have already been informed that the Labiate flowers belong chiefly to the class Didynamia. The ringent division of plants belongs to the order Gymnospermia, having four seeds, lying naked in the calyx. The personate division belongs to the order Angiospermia, having the seeds enclosed in a capsule until they are ripe, when the capsule opens spontaneously and disperses them.

The ringent flowers generally grow in whorls or circles and at the upper part of an angular stem, the leaves standing opposite. These plants are never poisonous. Among them we find many aromatic plants, the Peppermint, Lavender, Savory, Marjorum, Thyme, &c; also many herbs which are useful in sickness, as Pennyroyal, Catmint, Horehound, &c; the Scullcap (Scutellaria,) which has been said to be a remedy for the hydrophobia, the modest *Ianthus*, (Blue gentian,) and a little flower of a most beautiful blue colour called *Trichostemea*, or Blue curls.

The personate division affords some very splendid flowers, as the Painted cup, (Bartsia,) the beautiful Gerardia,* American Foxglove, and the magnificent Bignonia, (Trumpet flower.) The Class, plants of this [redacted] seem to be somewhat allied to those of the class Pentandria; in many of these, as in the Snapdragon, (Antirrhinum,) the Penstemon, &c., there exists the rudiments of a fifth stamen, in accordance with the five divisions of the calyx and corolla. Some plants of this division of the Labiate family are poisonous, as the Foxglove and the Snapdragon.

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* See Eaton's Botanical Grammar for the same distinction, also Thornton's Botany.

UMBELLATE PLANTS.

The plants of this natural family are found in the artificial class Pentandria; they derive their name from the Latin word *umbella*, an umbrella, on account of the manner in which the peduncles of flower stalks grow out from the main stem.

The umbellate plants are mostly herbaceous, those which grow on dry ground are aromatic, as Dill, Fennel, and Caraway; those which grow in wet places, or the aquatic species, are among the most deadly poisons, as Water-hemlock, &c. Plants of this family are not in general so beautiful to the sight, nor so interesting as objects of botanical analysis, as many others.†

The corolla is superior, or over the germ, consisting of five petals, usually with a stamen standing between each petal. From the centre of the flower arises two styles which often remain permanent upon the fruit. The general figure of the fruit is oblong or oval; it separates perpendicularly into two seeds, as may be seen in the Fennel or Dill. The figure, margin, and angles of the seeds are considered as affording proper characters for the distinction of genera, as in the Parsnip, they are flat, in the Carrot, bristly, in the Hemlock, marked with ridges. Among the plants of this family which are used as articles of food, are the Carrot, Parsnip, Celery and Parsley; the aromatics are Dill, Fennel, Sweet cicely, Caraway, and Coriander; and among the poisonous plants, are the Conium, (Poison hemlock,) Water-parsnip and the Cicuta, (Water-hemlock.)

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* The beautiful colour of these plants is generally lost in drying, therefore they are less ornamental in an herbarium than many of much less native elegance.

"† Botanists in general shrink from the study of the Umbelliferæ; nor have these plants much beauty in the eyes of amateurs; but they will repay the trouble of a careful observation. The late M. Cusson of Montpellier bestowed more pains upon them than any other botanist has ever done; but the world has, as yet, been favoured with only a part of his remarks. His labours met with a most ungrateful check, in the unkindness, and still more mortifying stupidity of his wife, who, in his absence from home, is recorded to have destroyed his whole herbarium, scraping off the dried specimens, for the sake of the paper on which they were pasted!"—*Sir James Edward Smith's Botany.*

COMPOUND FLOWERS.

The flowers of this family begin to blossom in the latter part of summer, and are found almost bordering upon the verge of winter. The Dandelion is among the earliest flowers of spring, and one of the latest of autumn. The Daisy is found in almost every spot which exhibits any marks of fertility.

The Dandelion is not a single flower like a violet or rose, but a crowded cluster of little flowers. The Sun-flower is so large and conspicuous as doubtless to have frequently attracted your notice. If you would examine one carefully you would find it to be composed of more than a hundred florets or little flowers, each as perfect in its kind as a lily, having its corolla, stamens, pistil and seed.

We distinguish the Sunflower into two parts,—the *disk*, which is the middle of the flower, and supposed to have a resemblance to the middle or body of the sun; the *ray* is the border of the flower, or those florets which spread out from the disk as rays of light diverge from the sun. The florets in this, as in other compound flowers, do not all begin to expand at the same time, they usually begin at the disk and proceed inwards towards the centre.

If you examine with a microscope one of the florets of the disk, you will perceive it to be tubular, containing one pistil, surrounded by five stamens, which are separate, but the five anthers grow together, forming a tube around the pistil.

It is this union of anthers which gives to this kind of compound flowers a place in the class Syngenesia, which name signifies anthers growing together. The florets of the ray are called neutral, having neither stamens nor pistils: the circumstance of neutral florets in the ray places the Sun-flower in the order *Frustranea* of the 17th class.

Although the term compound is confined to the flowers of the class Syngenesia, the real circumstance on which the class is founded is not the compound character of the flower, but the union of the anthers. A Clover blossom may be said to be Compound, because it is a collection of many little flowers compounded or united into one; but each little floret of the clover has its own calyx; there is no general calyx enclosing the whole, as in the Syngenesious plants, but the florets are arranged in such a manner as to form a head; the anthers are separate, the filaments are connected at their sides, and this latter circumstance, together with the papilionaceous form of the corolla, places the clover in the class Diadelphia.

All the Syngenesious flowers are composed of two sorts of florets, either *tubular* with a toothed margin, or *strap* shaped, appearing flat like a strap, but being also toothed at the edge; these are sometimes called Semi-florets, or half flowers.

Three sections are made upon the consideration of these different florets.

1st. *Semi-flosculous* flowers, which are entirely composed of the strap shaped or *ligulate* florets, the Dandelion and Lettuce are examples of this section; these are all of one colour.

2d. *Flosculous* flowers, such as are entirely composed of the tubular florets; as the Thistle and Saffron; these are also of one colour.

3d Section comprises those flowers which are composed of both *tubular* and *strap shaped florets*, the disk or middle consisting of tubular florets, and the ray or border of the flat florets. The colour of the disk and ray is often different in the common Daisy; the disk is yellow, the rays are white.

As the Syngenesious flowers are more difficult to analyze than any others except the Cryptogamous plants, we will assist you with a drawing of one of these plants.

ANALYSIS OF THE DAISY.

We have here a representation of the Mountain daisy; as we have the whole plant before us, we will in regular order consider the appearance of all its different parts.

1. The *Root:* you will observe this answers to the general description of *fibrous*, having the small thread-like parts issue from the main root, or *radix:* from these fibres sometimes spring out little tubercles, so that it may be said to be *fibrous tubercled*.
2. The *Leaves*, you observe, spring from the root, and are hence called *radical;* being also undivided, they are therefore *simple*. In form they are somewhat oval, with the narrow end towards the stem; this form is called *obovate*. The leaves are said to be *crenate*, on account of the notches upon their margin.
3. The *Stem* is called a *scape*, because it springs directly from the root, and bears no leaves; it is said to be naked, having no kind of appendages.
4. The *Calyx* is said to be *hemispherical*, or like a half circle; it is *common*, that is enclosing many florets; the leafets of the calyx, sometimes called scales, are equal, or of the same size.
5. The *Corolla* is *compound*, having many florets on one receptacle, *radiate*, having rays; the florets of the disk *tubular*, and have both stamens and pistils, funnel shaped and five toothed; the florets of the ray are flat, and only have pistils.
6. The *Stamens are five, united* at the summits by their anthers forming a tube.

7. The *Pistil,* in the disk florets, passes up through the tube formed by the anthers; the stigma is parted into two divisions, which are *reflexed,* (bent back;) the pistil on the ray florets passes up through a tube of the floret, but is unaccompanied by any stamens.
8. The plant has no *pericarp,* or seed vessel, the seeds are single, and shaped somewhat like an egg; they are also naked, that is, destitute of the downy plume called egret, which is seen upon the dandelion, and many other of the syngenesious plants.
9. The *Receptacle* is *conical,* or in shape resembles a sugar loaf, it is dotted with little holes: these are the places in which the seeds were fixed; the appearance of the receptacle whether naked or chaffy, is very important to be observed in the syngenesious plants, it sometimes constitutes a distinction between genera.

The botanical name of the daisy is BELLIS *perennis.* It belongs to the Class 17th Syngenesia, because the anthers are united; Order 2d Superflua, because the pistils in the ray are superfluous, having no stamens.

The generic name *Bellis* is from an ancient Latin word, *belles,* handsome; from which comes also the French word bel; the specific name *perennis,* signifies that it is a perennial plant, or one whose roots live several years. The English name Daisy is derived from a property, which many of the syngenesious plants possess, of folding up its petals at the setting of the Sun, and expanding them with its rising. The poet Chaucer, who lived in the fourteenth century, is said to have first noticed this circumstance, and to have called the flower Day's-eye.

As a specimen of the old English poetry, and barbarous modes of spelling, as well as to show you that flowers were objects of interest in ages long since past, as well as the present, we will quote a few lines from Chaucer upon the Daisy.

As she that is of all flouris the floure,
Fullfilled of all virtue and honoure;
And ever alike fair and fresh of hewe,
As well in winter as in summer newe;
As soon as ever the sunne ginneth west
To sene this floure, how it will go to rest,
For fear of night, so hateth she darknesse;
Her chere is plainly spread in the brightnesse
Of the sunne, for there it will unclose.
Well, by reason men it calle maie
The Daisie, or else the Eye of the Daie,
And at the last there then began anon
A Lady for to sing right womanly,
A Bargonet in praising the Daisie,
For as me thought among her notis swete
She said, "Si belle est la Margarite."*

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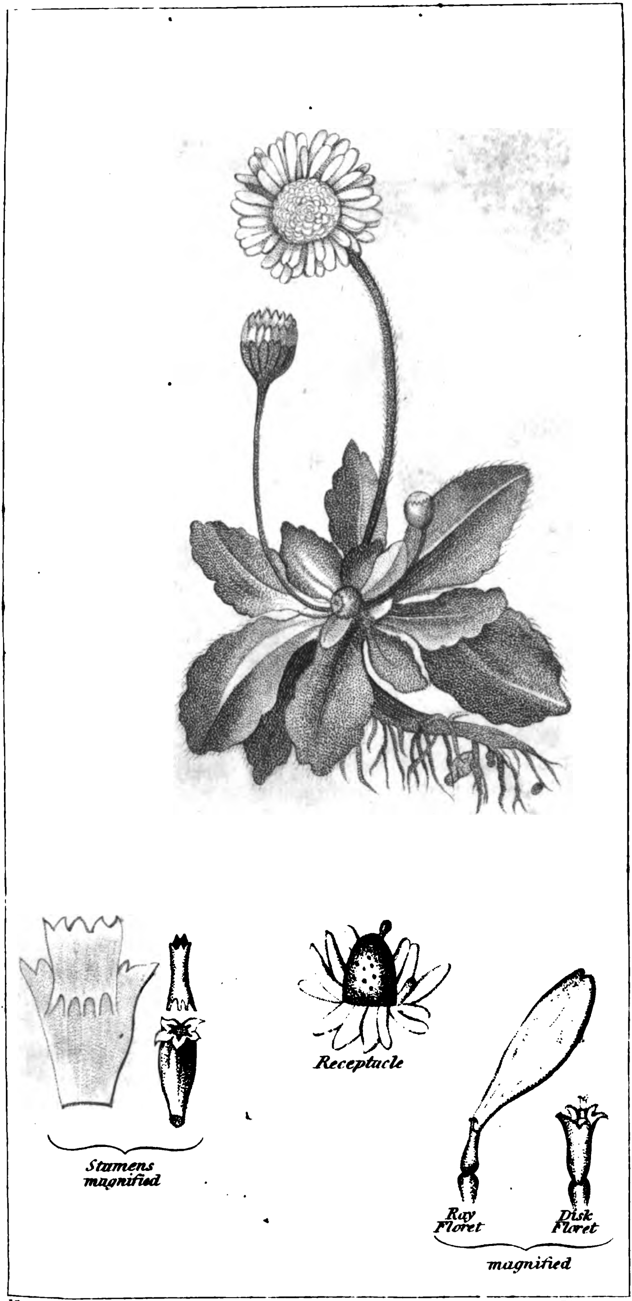
* The French name for the Daisy is La belle Margarite, the beautiful Margaret.

MOUNTAIN DAISY

PLATE X.



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BELLIS PERENNIS

Class XVIII. Order II.

We shall have occasion to make some farther remarks upon compound flowers under the class Syngenesia.

LECTURE XX.

Use of Botanical Names.—Artificial classes and orders considered in groupes.—Monandria.—Diandria.

Having made you acquainted with five of the most conspicuous natural families of plants, we will now proceed to consider the Artificial System; not as we have before done, by general and condensed views, but somewhat in detail, observing a few of the most remarkable plants under each class, and also some of the natural groupes or families which we shall meet with in our progress through the Linnæan classes.

From what has been already observed, you have no doubt come to the conclusion that this is the best method yet discovered of finding out new plants, and of discovering the botanical names of those which are already known by their common names. If in all countries the common names were alike, there would be no need of any other; but the names of plants vary in different languages as much as other terms. We call that *pen* which in France is called *plume*, so we call that *oak*, which is there called *chene.** Even in the same countries, and often in the same neighbourhoods, the common names of plants are different, but botanical names are the same, in all ages and countries; without this uniformity no permanent improvement could be made in the science. A Botanist in France who should send a description of *la chène*, (the common name for oak,) to his friend in America, would not be understood; if the American knew something of French, he might mistake the word for one which is like it, *chien*, which signifies a *dog*, and thus he might fall into the grotesque mistake of supposing that in France they had a wonderful species of *dogs*. But let the French Botanist use the term *Quercus*, and on the supposition that his American friend understood Botany, he would at once know the meaning of the term as plainly as if it had been written oak. All botanical names are in Latin, because this is the language most universally studied, for this reason all books on botany were for a long time written in that language.† And although it is well for the learned, thus to communicate with each other, by one common language, it would be unjust to deprive, of the pleasure and improvement to be derived from this science, all who are not versed in that language. But the learned, are not only in general intent upon making discoveries, they also derive a pleasure in imparting them to others; and the fountains of botanical knowledge have been by the exertions of many men of genius and learning made accessible to all.

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* Pronounced shane.

† As the work of Linnæus.

The Classes in the artificial system are now reckoned as 21, all of which except the last, may be considered in groupes according to different circumstances of the stamens.

1st. *The first ten classes* are founded upon the *number*.

2d. *Eleventh* and *Twelfth*, upon the *number* and *insertion*.

3d. *Thirteenth* and *Fourteenth*, upon *number* and *length*.

4th. *Fifteenth*, *Sixteenth*, *Seventeenth*, and *Eighteenth*, upon *connexion*.

5th. *Nineteenth* and *Twentieth*, upon *position*.

The *Twenty-first* class includes all plants which either have not stamens and pistils, or in which these organs are two minute to be seen, without the help of a microscope.

The orders are founded,

1st. Upon the number of Pistils.
2d. Upon the seeds being covered or lying uncovered in the calyx.
3d. The relative length of the pods.
4th. The comparison between the disk and ray florets of compound flowers.
5th. Number of Stamens.
6th. The orders of the class Cryptogamia are distinguished by natural family characters.

NAMES OF THE ARTIFICIAL CLASSES.

1. **Monandria**, one stamen.
2. **Diandria**, two stamens.
3. **Triandria**, three stamens.
4. **Tetrandria**, four stamens.
5. **Pentandria**, five stamens.
6. **Hexandria**, six stamens.
7. **Heptandria**, seven stamens.
8. **Octandria**, eight stamens.
9. **Enneandria**, nine stamens.
10. **Decandria**, ten stamens.
11. **Icosandria**, twenty or more stamens on the calyx.
12. **Polyandria**, many stamens on the receptacle.
13. **Didynamia**, four stamens, two long and two short.
14. **Tetradynamia**, six stamens, four long and two short.
15. **Monadelphia**, stamens united by their filaments into one set.
16. **Diadelphia**, stamens united by their filaments into two sets, flowers papilionaceous.
17. **Syngenesia**, five stamens united by their anthers, flowers compound.
18. **Gynandria**, stamens growing on the pistil.
19. **Monœcia**, stamens and pistils on different flowers on the same plant.
20. **Diœcia**, stamens and pistils on different flowers on different plants.
21. **Cryptogamia**, stamens and pistils invisible.

Class monandria.—*Containing two Orders.*

In this country we have very few examples of plants of this class: the Hippuris an aquatic plant is sometimes found in stagnant water; it is the most simple of all perfect[*] flowers, having neither calyx nor corolla, and but 1 stamen, 1 pistil, and 1 seed. The germ in maturing, hardens into a naked seed without any kind of appendages. The genus Hippuris contains but one species. It belongs to the natural order Inundatæ, signifying growing in water.

The Salicornia or Samphire is found in salt marshes near the sea coast, it is said to have been collected at the Onondaga salt-springs.[*] In Europe it is collected in large quantities, dried in the sun and then burnt; the ashes are collected and used in the manufacture of soda.

Shakspeare speaks of this plant in describing a precipice overhanging the sea.

> "How fearful,
> And dizzy 'tis to cast one's eyes so low!
> Half way down,
> Hangs one that gathers Samphire; dreadful trade!"

Although the plants of this class are so very limited in northern countries, some of the most valuable vegetable productions of the tropical regions are found here; as the Arrow root so useful to the sick as a nutritious substance; the Turmeric remarkable for the peculiar yellow colour of its bark; here also is found the Ginger, which grows wild in some parts of Asia, and is cultivated in the East and West Indies. The flowers of the Ginger are said to be beautiful and fragrant, the root only is used in commerce. The Ginger, (*Ammomum,*) belongs to the natural order Scitamineæ, which embraces several genera of aromatic plants. The distinguishing marks of this natural family of Linnæus are an herbaceous stem, very broad leaves, a germ with three corners, and a liliaceous corolla.

Diandria.—*Containing two Orders.*

ORDER MONOGYNIA.

This, though more extensive than the class Monandria, is somewhat limited. We can however, without difficulty, find examples for its illustration. The Lilac, (Syringa,) is cultivated in all parts of our country, and is exceeded in beauty by few ornamental shrubs, in fragrance perhaps by none.

The Corolla is *salver* form, or with a tube which spreads out into a flat, four-parted border. You might, at first view, suppose the corolla to consist of several petals; but if you attempt to pull them out they will all come off together, and you will plainly perceive there is but one piece, or that it is monopetalous. In flowers of one petal the stamens are generally fastened to the corolla; where there are several petals, the stamens are mostly attached to the receptacle; this affords a good mark of distinction between the two kinds of corollas.

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[*] Although so destitute of other organs, it is called perfect because it has stamens and pistils.

[†] See Eaton's Manual.

You will perceive in the Lilac, the two stamens standing opposite to each other, and fastened to the corolla. The form in which the blossoms are crowded together, forming a large bunch is termed a *thyrse*. The Lilac although so common with us, is an exotic; the species most cultivated are the *vulgaris*, or common, which has heart-shaped leaves; and the *persica*, or Persian, with narrow leaves.

The Jasmine, of which twenty-eight species are said to have been discovered, is an exotic of this class. The Prim, (*Ligustrum*,) is found growing wild in some parts of New England; though in general it is seen but little in the United States, except when cultivated. In England, it is planted for fences; as it grows rapidly, it soon becomes useful for this purpose, and with its green leaves and white flowers, it also gives to the farms an air of neatness and taste.

The Sage, (*Salvia*,) on account of the form of its corolla belongs to the natural family of the labiate flowers; these are mostly placed in the class Didynamia, having four stamens, two long and two short: but in some cases the labiate flowers have but two stamens; this circumstance, according to the rules of classification, separates them from their natural family, and brings them under the class we are now considering. You may understand this better, if we compare it to taking a person from his relations, to put him among strangers. But this evil must sometimes be borne for the sake of some attendant good; we are also obliged to submit to the necessity of occasionally separating the flowers from their natural relations, because we cannot turn aside from our rules of classification to accommodate a few plants, which unfortunately possess those properties which bring them under two sets of laws. The Sage seems to have made an effort to escape this misfortune, for it almost has four stamens; its two filaments seem double, but as these two imperfect stamens have no anthers, they cannot be considered as stamens; therefore the plant falls back into the second class, and is placed by the side of the Lilac, to which it has no kind of resemblance, except in its two stamens. This plant, however, is not the only one of the labiate flowers which is removed from its natural family and placed in the 12th class; for the Rosemary and the Mountain mint, (*Monorda*,) accompany it into the second class; but these have not the two imperfect filaments which were remarked in the Sage.

The genus Salvia contains one hundred and fourteen species; the one most commonly cultivated with us is the *officinalis*, a shrub-like perennial plant; to this we give more particularly the name of Sage. Another species of the same genus is the *selara*, called Clarry sage, this has larger and broader leaves than the common sage; it is cultivated for its medicinal properties.

A very small plant called Enchanter's Night-shade, (*Circæa*,) may be found growing wild in shady places; it is a very harmless, modest looking plant, notwithstanding its ominous name. It has a small white blossom, in the parts of which, great uniformity as to number may be observed; having 2 *stamens*, a corolla with 2 *petals*, a calyx with 2 *leaves*, capsule with 2 *cells*, or apartments, each of which contains 2 *seeds*.

The symmetry of structure, observable in the plant just described, is seen in many flowers; as those of two stamens often have the number two prevail in the other parts of the flower; this number is often doubled, as in the Lilac, which has two stamens, and the corolla four parted. In a plant with three stamens, the number three or six usually prevails in the divisions of the calyx, corolla, capsule, &c. A knowledge of this fact will assist you in determining the class of a plant; for example, if you have a flower whose calyx has five or ten divisions, and the corolla the same number, you may expect, if the flower is a perfect one, to find either five or ten stamens; or if the divisions of the flower be two, there will generally be two or four stamens; if three, either three or six stamens; if four, either four or eight stamens. The number five, as divisions of the calyx, corolla, and capsule, is generally united to five or ten stamens, and found in the 5th and 10th classes.

Another native plant of the second class, is the *Veronica*. Of the seventy species which this genus is said to contain, no more than six or eight are common to North America. The Veronica and the Circæa both turn black when dried; although they do not add to the beauty of an herbarium, they are desirable in a collection of plants, as our country contains few specimens to illustrate the second class.

ORDER DIGYNIA.

In the second order of this class is the Sweet vernal grass. (Anthoxanthum *odoratum*,) which is found in blossom in May; this is the kind of grass which is used in this country as a substitute for the Leghorn grass, in the manufacture of hats. The first hat of the kind was made a few years since by an ingenious female in the town of Wethersfield, Connecticut; since which time many hats, not inferior to the best Leghorn, have been made from the same material.

The Catalpa, an elegant tree with flat, *cordate*, or heart-shaped leaves, is indigenous to the Southern United States; its white flowers, striped with purple, grow in panicles similar to the Horse-chesnut. Only one species is found in North America.

We have in the course of this lecture remarked upon the use of botanical terms, with the necessity of their being in one common language; we have considered the few groupes into which the classes of Linnæus may be arranged with the names of all the classes, and the characters of each; and lastly, have given a sketch of the two first classes, with some examples under each of their orders. In doing this, we have been obliged to pass by many plants which might have had an equal claim to notice, but as knowledge must be gained by the observation of particular cases, we have thus selected some in in order that you may be prepared to examine the others with pleasure and advantage.

LECTURE XXI.

CLASS III—TRIANDRIA, AND CLASS IV—TETRANDRIA.

ORDER MONOGYNIA.

In the 1st order of this class we find among our common exotics, the Crocus, which is particularly interesting as being one of the earliest flowers of our gardens, not unfrequently blossoming in the neighbourhood of a snow bank. It has a bulbous root, long and narrow leaves, a spatha for a calyx, and six petals. Besides the Crocus *vernus* or spring crocus, which often appears even in our climate as early as March; there is, of this genus a very distinct species; the Crocus *officinalis*, or the true saffron, which appears among the late flowers of autumn. The following beautiful lines, respecting these flowers, are from the pen of the interesting Henry Kirke White, whose untimely death, in the spring time of his existence, has been deeply regretted, but his early and fervent piety marked him as a fit inhabitant for a purer sphere; a christian, and philosopher, he could see an invisible hand directing the operations of nature.

> "Say, what impels, amid surrounding snow
> Congealed, the Crocus' flamy bud to grow?
> Say, what retards, amid the Summer's blaze,
> The autumnal bulb, till pale declining days?
> The God of seasons, whose pervading power
> Controls the Sun, or sheds the fleecy shower:
> He bids each flower his quickening word obey;
> Or to each lingering bloom, enjoins delay."

The Iris, or Fleur-de-lis, (pronounced by a corruption of the French, Flower de luce,) is the national flower of France, as the Rose is of England. You will find the Iris a very curious flower when you examine its organs attentively. It has no proper calyx, but a spatha; its corolla consists of six parts, alternately *reflected*, or bent back; the pistil has three stigmas, which appear at first view like petals. The Iris is so named from Iris, the rainbow, on account of the various colours which it reflects, varying from different shades of purple, into blue, orange, yellow, and white. We have several native species of Iris, one of which, the common Blue flag, is found in wet places. The flowers are purple streaked with yellow; this is sometimes called Poison flag. The Crocus and Iris are found in the natural order Ensatæ, named from the Latin word *ensis*, a sword, on account of the shape of their leaves, being long, narrow and pointed.

ORDER DIGYNIA.—*The Grasses.*

The 2d *Order* of the third class contains the natural family of the grasses, they are distinguished by a strait, hollow, and jointed stem, or culm; the long and linear leaves are placed at each joint of the stalk in alternate order, enclosing it like a sheath. The *flowers* of the grasses are found in what is called the ear, or head, and consist of two green husks, forming the calyx; within which is the blossom, consisting of a husk of two parts or valves. These little flowers, which are also furnished with a nectary, are green, like the rest of the plant, and and you will need a microscope to view them accurately; they are best observed in a mature stage of the plant, when their husks, expanded, discover their three filaments, containing each a large double anther; their two pistils have a kind of reflected feathered stigma. They have no seed vessel, each seed is contained within the husks, which gradually open, and unless the seed is gathered in season, it falls to the ground. This facility for the distribution of the seed is one cause of the very general diffusion of grasses.

The *roots* of grasses are fibrous, and increase in proportion as the leaves are trodden down or consumed; and the stalks which support the flower are seldom eaten by cattle, so that the seeds are suffered to ripen. Some of the grasses, which grow on very high mountains where the heat is not sufficient to ripen the seed, are propagated by such suckers or shoots, as rise from the root, spread along the ground, and then take root themselves; grasses of this kind are called *stoloniferous*, which means sending out shoots. Some others are propagated in a manner not less wonderful, for the seeds begin to grow while in the flower itself, and new plants are there formed, with little leaves and roots; they then fall to the ground, where they take root. The grass is then called *vivip'arous* which signifies producing its offspring alive, either by bulbs instead of seeds, or by seeds germinating on the plant. The seeds of the grasses have but one lobe, or are not naturally divided into parts, like the apple seed and the bean; therefore these are said to have but one Cotyledon.

With regard to the duration of the grass like plants, some are annual; as, Wheat, Rye, and Oats, their roots dying after the grain or seed is matured. The meadow grasses are perennial: their herbage dying in autumn, and the roots sending out new leaves in the spring.

The grasses are distributed into a great number of generas; *they are chiefly distinguished by the different forms of the corollas, and the shape of the valves.*

The essential character of the Oat, (Avena,) consists in the jointed, twisted awn or beard, which grows from the back of the blossom; it is also remarkable for its graceful panicle, or the manner in which its flowers grow upon their stalks.

The Rye, (Secale,) has *two* flowers within the same husk. The Wheat, (Triticum,) has *three*; the interior valve of the corolla of the Wheat is usually bearded. The filaments in the Rye and Wheat are *exsert*, that is, hang out beyond the corolla; from which circumstance, these grains are more exposed to injury from heavy rains than others whose filaments are shorter.

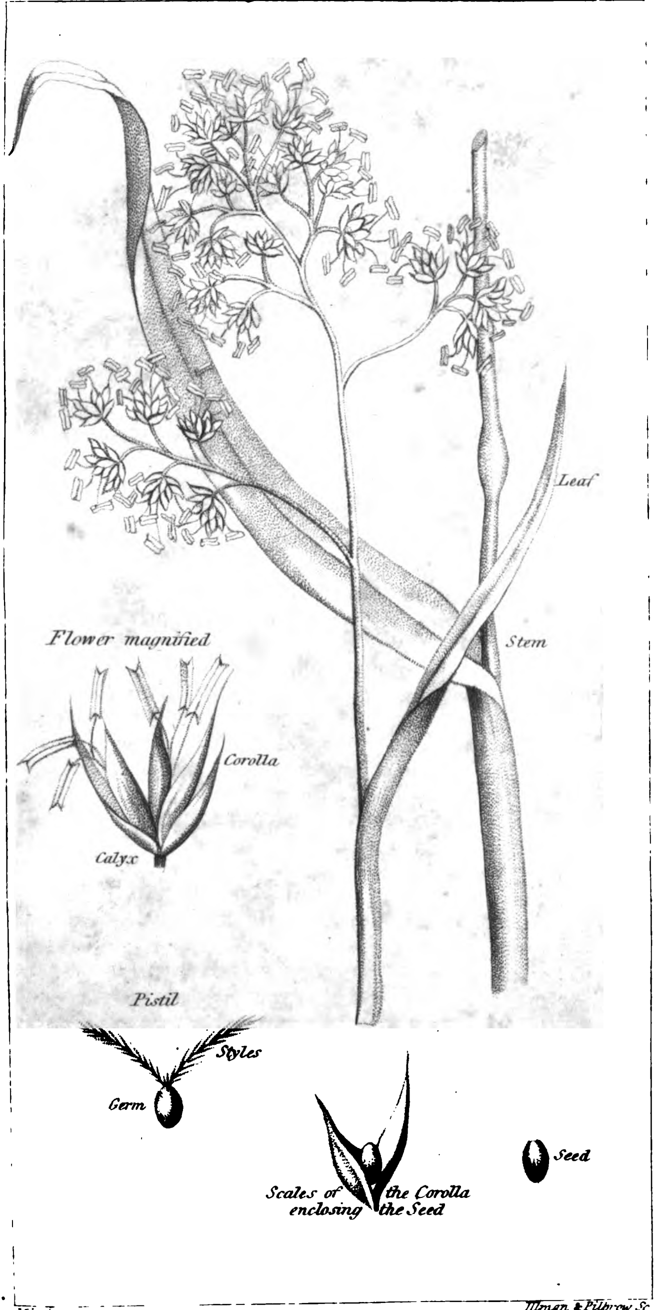
Perhaps, in the whole of the vegetable kingdom, although there are many plants of much greater brilliancy of appearance, there is no tribe which is so important to man as that of the grass like plants. It is estimated that nearly one-sixth part of vegetation belongs to the family of grasses. They cover the earth as with a green carpet, and furnish food for man and beast. Some of the most valuable grasses for cattle, are Herds grass (Phleum *pratense*,) and Meadow grass (Poa,) Orchard grass, (Dactylis,) and Oats, (Avena.)

The grass like plants which are used in various ways as food for man, are, Wheat, Rye, Barley, and Indian Corn; this latter, botanically called Zea *mays*, although of the natural family of the grasses, having a culm-like stalk and other distinguishing characteristics of grass like plants, is yet placed in the class Monœcia; as the stamens and pistils are separated in different flowers, though growing on the same root. The styles are very long and slender, and are *exserted*, or hang out from the stalk, forming what is called the *silk*; they are thus favourably situated for receiving the fertilizing pollen which is showered down from the staminate flowers.

The Sugar Cane, (Saccharum *officinarum*,) is of the grass family, it is supposed to have been brought from the South of Europe to the West Indies. The stem or culm, which sometimes grows to the height of twenty feet, affords the juice from which the sugar is made.

ORCHARD GRASS

PLATE XI.



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DACTYLIS GLOMERATA
Class III. Order II.

The Bamboo, (Arundo *bambos*,) of the East Indies, a species of reed, which is said to attain in some situations, the height of sixty feet, is also of this class.

The Sedge, (Carex,) seems to be of the grass like plants, but it bears staminate and pistillate flowers, and is placed in the class Monœcia. The Carexes* constitute a very numerous family of plants. To assist you in analyzing the grasses, we have here a drawing of the Dactylis *glomerata*† or Orchard grass. We first notice the different parts which belong to the Flower.

1. Calyx‡, two-valved, compressed, keeled,|| acute, one valve shorter than the floret, the other longer.
2. Corolla, two valved, compressed, oblong, acute, one valve within the larger valve of the calyx, keeled.
3. Stamens, filaments, three of the length of the corolla, anthers two-forked.
4. Pistil, *germ*, egg-shaped, *styles* two, spreading and feathery.
5. Pericarp, wanting, the scales of the corolla enclosing the seed, and afterwards opening and throwing them out.
6. Seed, a single one flattened on one side and convex on the other, naked, or without any kind of appendages.

The other parts of the plant are,

1. Stem, a culm or straw, cylindric, jointed.
2. Leaves, long, narrow, and pointed, simple, entire, surrounding the culm at their base, and thus forming a kind of sheath.
3. Flowers, thick, panicled, terminal.

This is a very common grass in the New England and Middle States.

Of all the grasses the Darnel, (Lolium,) only is poisonous; this seemed to have been avoided in the days of Virgil, who, in his "Pastorals," represents the shepherds as speaking of the lolium as destructive to their flocks.

CLASS IV—TETRANDRIA.

The same number of stamens are found in the plants of this class as in those in the 13th class, Didynamia. In the fourth class the stamens are of equal length, but in the thirteenth they grow in two pairs of unequal length.

ORDER MONOGYNIA.

The first order of the fourth class is divided into five sections, as follows:

First, flowers with *one petal*, situated *below* the germ.

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* The plural of *carex* according to the Latin termination is *carices*.

† Glomerata signifies a cluster, alluding to the crowded panicles of flowers.

‡ The parts of the calyx and also of the corolla, are called glumes; they are all much alike in appearance, being merely a set of sheathes, for the purpose of protecting the stamens; they are not distinguished by any difference in colour from the leaves or stem. The anthers which are usually yellow, are the only part of the blossom of the grasses which is coloured.

|| Resembling the keel of a boat.

Second, *above* the germ.

Third, flowers *four petalled below* the germ.

Fourth, petals *above* the germ.

Fifth, flowers that have *no corolla*, and therefore called incomplete.

As an example of the first order may be mentioned, the HOUSTONIA *cærulea*, which is known by different common names; in some sections of the country it is called *Innocence*, in others Venus' Pride, and in some Blue Houstonia. It is a very delicate little flower, appearing early in the spring in grassy fields and meadows; the colour varies from sky blue (which gives its specific name *cærulea*) to a pure white. The flower has a small calyx, with four divisions; a monopetalous corolla of five lobes, which gives it something the appearance of a cruciform plant.

The common Plantain, (Plantago,) is found here; it is a plant by no means useless, although it exhibits nothing interesting to gratify the sight. The leaves are sometimes used in external application for medicinal purposes; they are also, when young and tender, boiled and used for food in some parts of the United States. The flowers of the plantain grow on a spike; they are very small, but each one has a calyx and corolla, which are both divided into four parts; the filaments are very long, and the pericarp is ovate with two cells. Canary birds are very fond of the seeds of the plantain.

We find in this class the *aggregate* flowers, such as have many flowers on the same receptacle; they have a general resemblance to the compound flowers of the class Syngenesia, but differ from them in having but four stamens with the anthers not united, the Syngenesious having five united anthers. The aggregate flowers are not often yellow, like many of the compound flowers, but are usually either blue, white, red, or purple.

The Button bush, (Cephalanthus,) of about five feet in height, affords a good example of the natural order *aggregatæ*. The inflorescence is white, appearing in heads of a globular form, each consisting of many little perfect florets; each head has its own four cleft calyx, but there is no general calyx, or involucrum for the whole. But one species of this genus, *occidentalis*,* is known, and this is entirely confined to North America.

The Teasel, (Dipsacus,) belongs to the aggregate flowers; its inflorescence is in heads of the form of a cone; it is furnished with narrow, stiff leaves in the wild Teasel; in the species which is cultivated these bristly leaves are hooked; on this account they are used by clothiers to raise a nap or furze on woollen cloth.

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* From *occidens*, the west, being found on the western continent.

The *Cornus*, so called from a Latin word *cornus*, a horn, on account of the hardness of the wood, is a genus composed mostly of shrub-like plants, with flowers growing in flat clusters or cymes, like the elder. The *florida*, a species of Cornus, often called Box-wood, sometimes Dogwood tree, is a beautiful ornament of our woods. It may be considered either a large shrub or a small tree; it grows from the height of fifteen to thirty feet. Its real corollas are very small, and are clustered together in the manner which is called in botany an aggregate. This aggregate of flowers is surrounded by that kind of calyx called an *involucrum*, which, in this plant, consists of four very large leaves, usually white, but sometimes of a pale rose colour; to the latter circumstance is owing its specific name *florida*, or florid. You would no doubt, on the first sight of this plant, mistake the large leaves of the involucrum for the petals.

Another very common genus of this class is the Bed-straw, (Galium,) an herbaceous plant, with very small white flowers, the leaves growing in whorls or rings; in different species, the leaves thus clustered together stand around the stem leaves in fours, fives, sixes and eights. Some species exhibit a peculiar roughness upon the stems and leaves. This genus with many others of the class, belongs to the natural order *Stellatæ*,* or starry plants; the leaves radiating from the stem as rays of light from a star.

Among the exotics of this class is the Madder, (Rubia *tinctoria*,) the root of which produces a beautiful scarlet colour. This plant is said to have the singular property of tinging with its red colour, the bones of the animals that feed upon it. This is one of the starry plants, belonging to the order Stellatæ of Linnæus; but Jussieu has arranged this and some of the plants whose leaves grow in whorls, under his 57th order, which he calls Rubiaceæ.

There are a few plants in the second and fourth order of this class, but none particularly interesting.

LECTURE XXII.

CLASS V—PENTANDRIA.

The class which we are about to examine is said to comprehend more than one tenth part of all known species of plants. It differs from the class Syngenesia in having its five stamens separate, while the Syngenesious plants have the same number of stamens united by means of their anthers. Plants with five stamens including those which have anthers united, are said to constitute one fourth part of the vegetable kingdom.

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* From *Stella*, a star.

ORDER MONOGYNIA.

There are six orders in the class Pentandria, the first of which, Monogynia, is large and important. Here we find the 41st natural order of Linnæus, the *Asperifoliæ*, a name derived from two Latin words, *asper*, rough, and *folium*, leaf, signifying rough leaved plants. These have monopetalous corollas, with five stamens and five naked seeds. "The change in the corolla of these plants, in general, from a bright red to a vivid blue as the flower expands, apparently caused by the sudden loss of some acid principle, is a very curious phenomenon."*

The *Cynoglossum* is perhaps as common as any of the Asperifoliæ or rough leaved plants. Its common name is Hound's tongue, so called from its soft oval leaves, which are thought to resemble the tongue of a dog. Although the Cynoglossum is classed with the rough leaved plants, its leaves are remarkably soft, appearing to the touch like velvet; it is about two feet high, the flowers are of a reddish purple, growing in panicles.

The Lungwort, (Pulmonaria,) which also belongs to this natural family, has two species in North America with smooth leaves. The Mouse-ear, (Myosotis,) is valued for its medicinal properties; a species, the *arvernis* or Forget-me-not, is an interesting little blue flower.

The *Gromwell*, (Lithospermum,) is a rough plant with white flowers; the bark of the plant contains so much silex or flinty matter, as to injure the sickles of the reapers, when it grows in the field with the grain.

The *Borago*, which gives its name to one of the natural orders, (*Boragineæ*,) of Jussieu, is an exotic. The corolla is wheel-shaped, of a beautiful blue colour, having its throat closed with five small protuberances; the same is observable in the cynoglossum and some others of this class; the stamens are attached to the tube of the corolla; you must take off the corolla carefully and you will see both the little scales which choked up the throat of the corolla, and the manner in which the five stamens grow to it.

The *Luridæ*, from *lurid*, signifying *pale* or *livid*, are in the 28th natural order of Linnæus; this order is by Jussieu included under his 41st, the Solaneæ. The general characters of these plants are monopetalous corollas, of a lurid or pale appearance, flowers with five stamens attached to the base of the corolla, and alternately with its lobes; the leaves are alternate.

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* Smith.

The common Potato, (SOLANUM *tuberosum*,) is of this natural family, the flowers of this plant are large and the organs very plain for analysis. There is a peculiarity in the appearance of the anthers which it is well to notice; they are of an oblong form, thick and partly united at the top, forming a cone, and instead of opening at the side, as anthers usually do, they open at the top by two pores.

The potato is said not to have been known in Europe, until after the discovery of America. In the year 1597 Sir Walter Raleigh on his return from this country, distributed a number of potatos in Ireland, where they became numerous and the cultivation of them soon extended into England.

It is said that the root of the potato is white or red according to the colour of the flower. The little green balls, upon the stalks of the potato, are the pericarps, and contain the seed; but this plant is usually produced from the root. The little knobs or eyes which you may notice upon the potatos, are each one a kind of germ or bud; and in planting potatos the whole root is not put into the ground, but cut into as many pieces as there are eyes, each one of which produces a plant.* In the same genus with the potato is found the Tomato and the Egg plant.

In this natural family is the DATURA *stramonium*, a large, ill looking, nauseous scented weed, with a funnel form, plaited corolla, either white or purple, with broad dark green leaves; when the corolla falls off and the germ matures, it then becomes a large, ovate, thorny pericarp; it is often called Thorn-apple, it continues to blossom during the summer, is found by the sides of roads, around old buildings and waste grounds. Yet even this disagreeable plant has an important use; it is on account of its narcotic, and other active properties, highly valuable in medicine.

In the group of plants we are now considering, is the Tobacco, (NICOTIANA *tabacum*.) This is a native of America; it was imported into Europe about the middle of the 16th century. It was presented to Catharine de Medicis Queen of France, as a plant from the new world possessing extraordinary virtues. The generic name Nicotiana is derived from *Nicot*, the name of the person who carried it to France.

King James 1st of England had such a dislike to the fumes of this plant, that he wrote a pamphlet, which he called a "Counter blast to tobacco." It is highly narcotic, the excessive use of it producing sleep like opium. The oil of tobacco when applied to a wound, is said to be equally fatal as the poison of a viper.

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* This is more properly a *continuation* of the plant than a *reproduction*, it is observed that the vegetable thus continued appears in process of time to become degenerated, and it is necessary to renew the race by reproducing it from seed.

The Mandrake, (Atropa *mandagora,*) was much used by the ancients as an opiate; they had many absurd notions respecting this plant; they fancied in its roots which are very large and of a peculiar appearance, a resemblance to the human form, and thought that some judgment would follow those who took them out of the ground. This superstition is not unlike that which is sometimes discovered even in the present day by those who are afraid to sow fennel, because they say it is "sowing sorrow."

Perhaps those very persons who would thus fear to perform acts so innocent as to take a root from the ground, or to put seeds into it, would have no hesitation in violating a command of God, or neglecting to perform their known duties.

The Atropa *mandagora* or Mandrake, must be distinguished from the mandrake which grows in our country; the latter bears a fruit which is pleasant to the taste and perfectly inoffensive. The botanical name of the American mandrake is Podophyllum, it is found in the class Polyandria. You can see in this instance the importance of botanical names being given in a language which shall be the same in all countries. The common name mandrake has been given to two plants essentially different; but by a uniformity in the scientific names, there is no danger of one being taken for the other by those who know any thing of botany.

Along with the Potato, the Stramonium, and the Atropa, we find the Mullein, (*Verbascum,*) which you must have seen too often to need any general description of its appearance; but though its *natural characters* may have so far attracted your attention that you know a mullein from every other plant, you may not have examined its different parts with a view to scientific arrangement; we will tell you that it has, like all the Luridæ a five parted calyx, wheel-shaped corolla, with five unequal divisions. The stamens are declined or turned downwards, bearded or hairy. The capsule is two-celled and many seeded. The leaves are oblong, acuminate, or with their bases extending downwards around the stem, they are downy on both sides. The flowers are arranged along on their stem in such a manner as to constitute what is called a spike. The botanical name of the common mullein is Verbascum *thapsus,* a species of this *genus* smaller and more delicate than the common mullein, is often found in woods; this is called Verbascum *blattaria.*

This genus is less active in its medicinal properties than most others of the lurid family; it is said to possess anodyne properties, and to be intoxicating to fish.* We cannot at present enumerate all the plants of this extensive natural family; but as you analyze plants, you can refer them to their natural orders, and thus you will in time become familiar with the natural, as well as artificial classes.

Another natural family chiefly found in the fifth class, contains flowers with wheel-form corollas.

The Loose strife, (*Lysimachia*,) an herbaceous plant is very common in June and July; several species of it may be found along the banks of little brooks, and low meadow grounds.

The *racemosa*, or cluster flowered Loose strife is from one to two feet in height; it bears a profusion of fine yellow blossoms, in a lax or limber raceme. It sometimes bears bulbs in the axils of the leaves, and small branches. These bulbs, like the roots of the crocus and onion, contain the rudiments of a plant.

The Lysimachia, though placed by Linnæus in the wheel-form family, is by Jussieu placed in another natural family, called Lysimachiæ. The St. John's wort, Hypericum, a very common and numerous family, is in the same natural order.

The *first order* of the class Pentandria, contains besides the plants we have enumerated, the Morning Glory, (Convolvulus,) the Honeysuckle, and the Genus, Ribes, which contains the Currant and Gooseberry. The Coffee, (Coffea *arabica*,) is also in this class and order. This plant is a native of Arabia; it is said to be used to a great extent by the Turks and Arabs, to counteract the narcotic effects of opium, which they use in large quantities. It is remarked by a physician, that the question is often asked, which is best for the health, to use Tea or Coffee? he thinks the question a difficult one to answer. The Turks, who drink great quantities of coffee, and the Chinese, who make equally as free use of tea, do not exhibit such peculiar effects as renders it easy to decide, that one is more injurious than the other.

We find in this order a natural family, called Contortæ, on account of their twisted corollas; the Perewinkle, (Vinca,) is an example.

Before closing our remarks upon the first order of the 5th class, we will remind you that the wine grape is found here; it is in the 72d order of Jussieu, Vites.† The general character of the genus of the grape, (Vitis,) is a calyx five toothed, petals connected at the top, a five seeded round pericarp. The stamens and pistils are, in some genera, diœcious, or on separate plants; this, according to our principles of classification, would carry the genus into the class Diœcia; but as some species of the genus have perfect flowers, containing five stamens and one pistil, and as it is never permitted to separate the different species of a genus, we take the diœcious species, which are less numerous than the pentandrous, into the fifth class.

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* Smith.

† Vines.

The regions which produce the wine grape have a mean annual temperature* of 50 degrees on the northern border, and 59 degrees on the southern. Lines of temperature have been described by Humboldt, by remarking the peculiar vegetables in different countries. He has traced the northern limit of the wine grape, where the mean annual temperature is about 50°, from near the latitude of Albany across the United States, to the Pacific ocean; not however in a straight line, for climate, although chiefly dependant on latitude, is yet much modified by other circumstances; and on the western coast of America we find in latitude 50°, a similar climate, to the 43d degree of latitude on the eastern coast. Thus the wine grape may grow in 50° of latitude, near the lakes, the Mississippi, and Pacific ocean; while, in the eastern part of New York and New England, it would not thrive beyond the 43d degree of latitude.

We find, on the other side of the Atlantic, the region of the wine grape, including France, and the southern countries of Europe, extending as high as latitude 50°.

The southern limit of the wine grape where the mean annual temperature is about 59°, is traced from Raleigh, in the United States, in latitude 35°, to Europe, where it passes between Rome and Florence, in latitude 44°; this line is the boundary between the grape region and that of the olive and fig, which you know, require a higher temperature than the grape.

The banks of the Rhine produce excellent grapes, which are brought down the river in great quantities to the seaports. The festival of the *Vintage*, or the gathering of the grapes, which, like our *Thanksgiving* season, is intended as a manifestation of gratitude for the fruits of the earth, was celebrated with much joy by the ancient Romans, and is still observed by the people of Italy; it occurs with them about the beginning of September; in France and the south of Germany, it is later.

The Fallernian wine was the most celebrated among the Romans; some of the Latin poets spake of it oftener than we should expect from those, whose intellectual taste might seem to elevate them above any very great attention to the gratification of the external senses. The number of wines in use, in the days of Virgil, was such, that he said he might as well attempt to count the sands on the shore, or the billows of the ocean in a storm, as to make a catalogue of them.

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* By mean annual temperature, is meant a medium between the extremes of heat and cold. In a climate where the thermometer in summer would rise to 100 degrees, and in winter sink to zero or 0, the medium would be 50 degrees; this is probably not far from the mean annual temperature of our climate. The mean annual temperature at the equator is reckoned to be about 84 degrees.

The vines of Italy, are often trained up trees, particularly upon the lofty Elm. In France, the vineyards have short poles, about the height of bean poles. The appearance exhibited by a luxuriant vineyard is truly rich and beautiful; of those of France and Italy, it may well be said,

> "The vine her curling tendrils shoots,
> Hangs out her clusters, glowing to the south,
> And scarcely wishes for a warmer sky."

It is said, the Persian vinedressers endeavour to make the vine run up the wall, and curl over on the other side, which they do, by tying stones to the extremity of the tendrils. A writer remarking upon this, thinks it may illustrate a passage in Genesis. "*Joseph is a fruitful bough; even a fruitful bough by a well; whose branches run over the wall.*" "The vine, particularly in Turkey and Greece, is frequently made to entwine on trellises around a well, where, in the heat of the day, whole families collect themselves and sit under their shade."

LECTURE XXIII.

ORDERS IN THE CLASS PENTANDRIA.

In the second order of the class Pentandria is the Oleander, a beautiful exotic, which belongs to the family Contortæ. Here is also the Apocynum or Dogs-bane, which gives name to one of the natural orders Apocyneæ of Jussieu. By Linnæus it is classed among the Contortæ, but the general character of the plant, and particularly the form of the corolla, seem to render it improperly placed there. This is an interesting plant, both as to general appearance, and as an object of analysis; but as you will be likely to meet with it frequently, and when you do, can find it among the genera of plants described in regular order; we shall make no farther remarks upon it in this place, except to observe, that this plant will present you with that form of pericarp, called a *follicle*, which is represented in the drawing of pericarps.

We find, as we proceed, a large family called Gentiana, which affords some delicate flowers, as well as medicinal plants. The Fringed gentian is a beautiful plant with a blue flower. The Pigweed, (Chenopodium,) notwithstanding the low esteem in which it is usually held, you will see, is dignified with a long and high sounding name. Shakspeare says, "A rose, by any other name would smell as sweet;" so, notwithstanding its great name, the pigweed is a very uninteresting plant; it is grouped by natural characters with the beet and dock, flowers which are destitute of beauty.

The Umbellate plants which belong to the order and class we are now considering, have already been described. The Parsley and Fennel are examples of their appearance.

The water Cow-bane, (CICUTA *virosa*,) grows in ponds and marshes, and is a deadly poison. Cows are often killed in the spring by eating it; but as the summer advances the smell becomes stronger, and they carefully avoid it.

Linnæus relates, that in a tour made into Lapland for scientific purposes, he was told of a disease among the cattle of Torneo, which killed a great many of them in the spring, when they first began to feed in the pastures. The inhabitants were unable to account for this circumstance; but the Swedish botanist, examining the pastures, discovered a marsh where the CICUTA *virosa* grew in abundance, he acquainted the people with the poisonous qualities of the plant, and thus enabled them to provide against the danger, by fencing in the marsh.

In the same family is the Poison-Hemlock, (CONIUM *maculatum*,) which has a peculiarly unpleasant, nauseous smell; its stalk is large and spotted, from whence its specific name *maculatum*, which signifies spotted. This plant is supposed to be the poison so fatally administered by the Athenians to Socrates and Phocion.

Before we leave the Umbellate plants, as they are not so simple of analysis as many others, we will present you with a drawing, which may assist you in understanding their general character.

We have here a sketch of the Coriander:—

1. CALYX. This is of that kind called an *involucrum;* the leaves which you see at the foot of the *universal umbel*, form what is called the *general involucrum;* the leaves, which are at the foot of the *partial umbel*, form a *partial involucrum*. Both of these involucrums are *pinnatifid*, or have the leaves divided.
2. COROLLA, this is represented as magnified, you can see that it has five petals *inflected*, or bent inwards.
3. STAMENS, five, anthers somewhat divided.
4. PISTILS, two *reflected*, or bent back, as may be seen on the seeds, where the stigmas are permanent.
5. PERICARP, is wanting, as in all umbellate plants.
6. SEED, is round, with its two styles at the summit.
7. STEM, is herbaceous, branched.
8. LEAVES, narrow, pinnatifid.
9. FLOWERS, terminal, umbelled.*

We have before remarked that the form of the seeds is of importance, in distinguishing the genera of the umbellate plants; we therefore give you, in the drawing, examples of the seeds of several plants.

The umbellate plants, although in some cases poisonous, sup-

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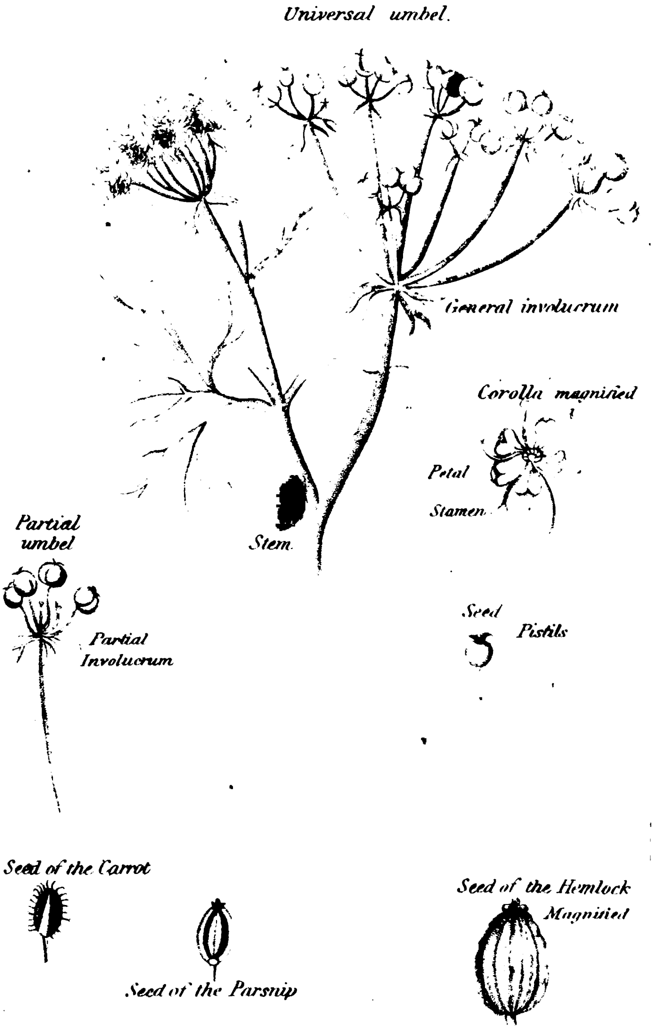
* The description of this plant is given on the authority of Nuttall, who calls it the American Coriander, which he says is found in the neighbourhood of the Red River. The cultivated coriander has but a one-leaved involucrum.

CORIANDER PLATE XII.



Miss Lee del. Tomlin & Pilbrow Sc.

CORIANDRUM AMERICANUM
Class V. Order II.

ply us with valuable vegetables for food; as the Parsnip, Carrot, Celery, and Parsley. The roots and stalks of the Angelica, in Greenland, where they have but a scanty supply, are eaten for food, and considered as a great delicacy.

The Dill, Fennel, Coriander, and Caraway, are used in confectionary, and are also made subservient to many valuable medicinal purposes. As we have given a description of this family of plants under the general head of umbellate plants, in studying their characters as coming under the class Pentandria, you will do well to refer back to that article.

The milk-weed plants, (Asclepiades,) are by many writers placed here; but as their five stamens seem evidently situated upon the pistil, the genus is placed in the fifth order of the class Gynandria.

TRIGYNIA.

The third order of the class Pentandria contains the Elder, (Sambucus,) a shrub, which with its clusters of delicate white flowers, ornaments the fields during the summer. From the appearance of the blossom you might suppose it to be umbelliferous; the stalks do at first radiate from one common centre, but afterwards they are unequally subdivided; this arrangement of flowers is called a *cyme*. The dark rich purple berries of the elder, and the peculiarity of its pithy stem, are amongst its distinguishing natural characters.

The Snow-ball, (Viburnum,) has a natural affinity with the elder: the flowers in its *cymes* are more thickly clustered together. Both are distinguished by their flat corollas; which are somewhat like a flat round piece of paper, with five divisions notched on the border. The only generic difference between the snow-ball and the elder is, that the former has a berry, or pericarp, with one seed, the latter with three.

TETRAGYNIA.

The fourth order of the class Pentandria has but one genus, the Grass of Parnassus, (Parnassia.) This is an interesting flower in its appearance; its leaves are white, and beautifully veined with yellow; the stem produces but one flower; the nectaries are remarkable for their beauty and singular appearance; they are five in number, heart-form, and hollow, surrounded with thirteen little threads, each one terminated with a round glandular substance. The name is said, by an English Botanist,* to have arisen from the plant being a native of Mount Parnassus, in Greece, anciently considered as the dwelling of the muses. It is found in North America.

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* Thornton.

PENTAGYNIA.

In the Fifth Order, we find the Flax, (Linum,) so called from a Celtic word *lin*, a thread. The flax has a showy blue flower, with an erect stem; a field of it in blossom presents a very beautiful sight. The cultivated species is said to be an exotic, of Egyptian origin. It is from the fibres of the stem of this plant, that all linen cloths, the finest lawn and cambric, are manufactured. We owe to it in one sense our literature; for the paper of which our books are made, is primarily derived from flax. The fibres of the stem are not only thus important to the comfort of man, by contributing to his clothing, and to his intellectual improvement, in furnishing a method of disseminating knowledge; but the seeds are highly valuable for their oil, called lin-seed oil. This is used in medicine; and the delightful performances of the artist are executed by means of colours, prepared with oil from the seed of the flax, laid upon the canvass made from the fibres of its stems.

POLYGYNIA.

The Thirteenth Order occurs next to the fifth; there being no plants in the class Pentandria with six, seven, and eight pistils, &c. until we come to the Yellow root, (Zanthoriza,) which is a native of the Southern States. It has 5 stamens, 13 pistils, no calyx, 5 petals, 5 nectaries, capsules 5 seeded; the flowers are purple, growing in panicles. It is a low shrub, with a yellow root, sometimes used by dyers.

Our investigations into the class Pentandria have necessarily been somewhat tedious, on account of the number and importance of the plants which it contains.

We do not, however, expect to make you practical botanists by introducing to your notice a few interesting plants: this can only be done by gathering flowers, and examining them according to those rules of analysis which we have endeavoured, in a simple manner to explain. If you study flowers, you will read remarks upon them with pleasure and profit; if not, definitions or instruction will be read with little interest and little improvement. Sciences may be unfolded, every facility which books and teaching can give, may be placed before the youthful mind; but that *mind* must itself be active, or the seeds of knowledge will no more take root and expand, than the seeds of plants would vegetate if thrown upon the bare surface of a rock.

LECTURE XXIV.

CLASS VI—HEXANDRIA, AND CLASS VII—HEPTANDRIA.

You have already been made acquainted with the Lily, as it was one of the first flowers you were taught to analyze; and, in a brief view of the Liliaceous flowers, you have been presented with the most striking characters belonging to this family, which we might, following the example of great names, call an "*illustrious*" race. Pliny says, the "Lily is next in nobility to the Rose."* Linnæus called them the "*Nobles* of the vegetable kingdom;" he also called the Palm trees "*Princes* of India:" but in our republican country, where aristocratic distinctions are little regarded, we will not attempt to introduce these titles of nobility among the flowers.

In the class Hexandria, the symmetrical ratio between the number of stamens and the divisions of the other parts of the flower, is generally to be found. In the Spiders-wort, (Tradescantia,) which has 6 stamens, we find the corolla 3 petalled, calyx 3 leaved, and capsules 3 celled. In the third class, which has 3 stamens, the divisions are often 6.

In the Lily, which has 6 stamens, there are 6 petals, 3 of these are exterior, 3 interior; the capsule is 3 sided, with 3 cells, and 3 valves; the seeds are arranged in 6 rows. This proportion of numbers seems to forbid the idea that this plant grew up merely by chance, without the agency of any designing mind. We are not to expect always to see the same symmetry in plants as has been here remarked. It is in the natural as in the moral world, that although every where around us we see such proofs of order and system as would manifest the superintending care of one Almighty Being; yet there are irregularities which we cannot comprehend: but although we may admire the *order*, we are not to say that even what seems *disorder*, is formed without a plan.

> "Shall little haughty ignorance pronounce
> His works unwise, of which the smallest part
> Exceeds the narrow visions of his mind?"

The Tulip has not, like the lily, any style, but its three parted stigma is attached to a three cornered germ. The corolla of the tulip is more expanded at the base than that of the lily. The stem of the tulip is never more than one flowered, while that of the lily usually has a number of flowers. Some native species of the tulip are found in North America, but those which you see in gardens are exotics. In no plant is the variation made by culture greater than in this; it is said, that of one single species, Tulipa *gesneriana*, one thousand and one hundred varieties are cultivated in Holland. About the middle of the seventeenth century the rage for tulips was so great, that some were sold for four thousand dollars, and one called the Vice-roi, for ten thousand dollars; but this extraordinary traffic was checked by a law that no tulip or other flower should be sold for a sum exceeding one hundred and seventy-five dollars.

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* "*Lilium nobilitate proximum est.*"

Besides the Liliaceous plants with bulbous roots, which include much of the beauty of our gardens, in the first order of the 6th class, are several genera which belong to the natural family Ensatæ, having sword-form leaves; as the Spiders-wort, a beautiful flower, whose symmetry we have already remarked. Many tenderly cherished exotics have less elegance than this neglected American plant.

The Snow-drop, which is one of the earliest flowers of spring, is of the same family. It may excite your astonishment to know, that in the class and order with so many splendid and beautiful flowers are the Onion (Allium) and the Bulrush (Juncus). But you must recollect that in this artificial system, if a flower has six separate stamens and one pistil, it is entitled to a place in the 6th class and 1st order, even though this should place a very humble plant by the side of the most gaudy flower.

In the first order of the sixth class is the Barberry, (Berberis,) found common in New England. The stamens possess an unusual degree of irritability, they recline upon the petals; but upon touching the base of the filaments by any substance, they instantly spring towards the pistil.

You may have observed that although we have remarked upon the *beauty* of some flowers to be found in this class, nothing has been said of their *utility;* the truth is, that their beauty, as is too often the case with external beauty, constitutes their chief merit. When we compare the advantages which the world derives from the costly race of showy Tulips with the utility of the humble flax, we feel that though we may admire the one, reason would teach us to prefer the other. You may from this, derive a moral lesson, which may suggest to your minds some truths, applicable to human beings as well as flowers.

We shall engross a considerable part of this lecture by a quotation from that elegant writer Dr. Johnson, who has sometimes been termed "the giant of English literature." The ease and humour of the style are of a nature to please the imagination; while the just and pious sentiments which break forth at the conclusion, have a tendency to improve the heart.

"I chanced to rise very early one particular morning this summer, and took a walk into the country to divert myself among the fields and meadows, while the green was new, and the flowers in their bloom. As at this season of the year every lane is a beautiful walk, and every hedge full of nosegays, I lost myself, with a great deal of pleasure, among several thickets and bushes that were filled with a great variety of birds, and an agreeable confusion of notes, which formed the pleasantest scene in the world to one who had passed a whole winter in noise and smoke. The freshness of the dews that lay upon every thing about me, with the cool breath of the morning, which inspired the birds with so many delightful instincts, created in me the same kind of animal pleasure, and made my heart overflow with such secret emotions of joy and satisfaction, as are not to be described or accounted for. On this occasion, I could not but reflect upon a beautiful simile in Milton.

'As one who long in populous city pent,
Where houses thick and sewers annoy the air,
Forth issuing on a summer's morn, to breathe
Among the pleasant villages, and farms
Adjoined, from each thing met conceives delight:
The smell of grain, or tender grass, or kine,
Or dairy, each rural sight, each rural sound.'

" Those who are conversant with the writings of polite authors, receive additional entertainment from the country, as it revives in their memories those charming descriptions, with which such authors do frequently abound.

" I was thinking of the foregoing beautiful simile in Milton, and applying it to myself, when I observed to the windward of me a black cloud fall to the earth in long trails of rain, which made me betake myself for shelter to a house which I saw at a little distance from the place where I was walking. As I sat in the porch, I heard the voices of two or three persons, who seemed very earnest in discourse. My curiosity was raised, when I heard the names of Alexander the Great, and Artaxerxes; and as their talk seemed to run on ancient heroes, I concluded there could not be any secret in it, for which reason I thought I might very fairly listen to what was said.

" After several parallels between great men, which appeared to me altogether groundless and chimerical, I was surprised to hear one say, that he valued the Black Prince more than the Duke of Vendosme. How the Duke of Vendosme should become a rival of the Black Prince, I could not conceive, and was more startled when I heard a second affirm with great vehemence, that if the Emperor of Germany was not going off, he should like him better than either of them. He added that though the season was so changeable, the Duke of Marlborough was in blooming beauty. I was wondering to myself from whence they received this odd intelligence; especially when I heard them mention the names of several other great generals, as the

Prince of Hesse, and the King of Sweden; who, they said, were both running away. To which they added, what I entirely agreed with them in, that the Crown of France was very weak, but that the Marshal Villars still kept his colours. At last one of them told the company, if they would go along with him, he would show then a Chimney-sweeper and a Painted lady standing together, which he was sure would very much please them. The shower, which had driven them as well as myself into the house, was now over, and as they were passing by me into the garden, I asked them to let me be one of their company.

"The gentleman of the house told me, if I delighted in flowers, it would be worth my while; for that he believed he could show me such a blow of Tulips as were not to be matched in the whole country.

"I accepted the offer, and immediately found that they had been talking in terms of gardening; and that the kings and generals they had mentioned, were only so many Tulips, to which the gardeners, according to their usual custom, had given such high titles and appellations of honour.

"I was very much pleased and astonished at the glorious show of these gay vegetables, that arose in great profusion on all the banks around us. Sometimes I considered them with the eye of an ordinary spectator, as so many beautiful objects varnished over with a natural gloss, and stained with such a variety of colours as are not to be equalled in any artificial dyes or tinctures. Sometimes I considered every leaf as an elaborate piece of tissue, in which the thread and fibres were woven together into different configurations, which gave a different colouring to the light as it glanced on the several parts of the surface. Sometimes I considered the whole bed of Tulips, according to the notion of the greatest mathematician and philosopher that ever lived,* as a multitude of optic instruments, designed for separating light into all those various colours of which it is composed.

"I was awakened out of these, my philosophical speculations, by observing the company often seemed to laugh at me. I accidently praised a Tulip as one of the finest I ever saw, upon which they told me it was a common Fool's Coat. Upon that I praised a second, which it seems was another kind of Fool's Coat. I had the same fate with one or two more; for which reason I desired the owner of the garden to let me know which were the finest of the flowers, for that I was so unskillful in the selection, that I thought the most beautiful, were the most valuable, and that those which had the gayest colours were the most beautiful. The gentleman smiled at my ignorance; he seemed a very plain honest man, and a person of good sense, had not his head been touched with that distemper which Hippocrates calls the *Tulippomania;* insomuch, that he would talk very rationally on any subject in the world but a Tulip.

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* Sir Isaac Newton.

"He told me he valued the bed of flowers which lay before us, and was not above twenty yards in length, and two in breadth, more than he would the best hundred acres of land in England; and added, that it would have been worth twice the money it is, if a foolish cook maid of his, had not almost ruined him the last winter, by mistaking a handful of Tulip roots for an heap of onions, and by that means, says he, made me a dish of porridge, that cost me above a thousand pounds sterling. He then showed me what he thought the finest of his Tulips, which I found received all their value from their rarity and oddness, and put me in mind of your great fortunes, which are not always the greatest beauties.

"I have often looked upon it as a piece of happiness, that I have never fallen into any of these fantastical tastes, nor esteemed any thing the more for its being uncommon or hard to be met with. For this reason, I look upon the whole country in spring time as a spacious garden, and make as many visits to a spot of Daisies, or a bank of Violets, as a florist does to his borders or parterres. There is not a bush in blossom within a mile of me which I am not acquainted with, nor scarce a Daffodil or Cowslip that withers away in my neighbourhood without my missing it. I walked home in this temper of mind, through the several fields and meadows with an unspeakable pleasure, not without reflecting on the bounty of Providence, which has made the most pleasing and most beautiful objects, the most ordinary and most common."*

We shall close this lecture by a few examples of the remaining orders of the class Hexandria, and a view of the very small class Heptandria.

DIGYNIA.

In the Second Order we find but one genus, Rice, (Oryza); this belongs to the family of grasses described under the 3d class; but it is separated from the other grasses as it has 6 stamens. No plant in the world appears of such general utility as an article of food as this. It is the prevailing grain of Asia, Africa, and the southern parts of America, and is exported into every part of Europe.

TRIGYNIA.

Here we find the genus Rumex, which contains the Dock and Sorrel; they have no corolla, but the six stamens and three pistils are surrounded by a six leaved calyx.

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* Tatler.

We find here an interesting flower called the False-wake-robin, (Trillium,) which is well worth cultivating by those who love the native beauties of their own country.

ORDER THIRTEENTH—POLYGYNIA.

Contains but one genus, Water Plantain, which belongs to a natural family of plants, said to be useful as food for cattle.

CLASS VII—HEPTANDRIA—*Monogynia.*

The First Order of this class contains the Chick-Winter-green, (Trientalis); this plant has a calyx with 7 leaves, corolla 7 parted. One species of it is said to defend its stamens against injury from rain, by closing its petals and hanging down its head in wet weather.

The Horse-chesnut, (Æsculus,) is a native of the northern part of Asia, and was introduced into Europe about the year 1500; it was not probably brought to America until sometime after the settlement of this country by Europeans. It is a small tree which produces white flowers, variegated with red, crowded together in the form of a pannicle; the whole, resembling a pyramid. In appearance it is very showy, the more agreeable to us as we have so few trees whose flowers are conspicuous. The blossom is very irregular in its parts, that is, its number of other divisions do not correspond with the usual number of stamens; the stamens however are variable as to number. The seeds in form have a resemblance to chesnuts, but are bitter. A very large species, the *pallida*, with pale flowers, is a native of the southern and western states.

TETRAGYNIA.

There is but one plant with four pistils known in the class Heptandria; this alone constitutes the Fourth Order, Tetragynia; its common name is Lizard's-tail, (*Saururus,*) it has arrow shaped leaves, flowers destitute of a corolla, growing upon a spike; it is to be found in stagnant waters.

HEPTAGYNIA.

The Septas, a native of the cape of Good Hope, is considered as the most perfect plant in this class; it has 7 stamens, 7 pistils, 7 petals, a calyx 7 parted, and 7 germs, (one to each pistil,) which germs become 7 capsules, or seed vessels.

This is of course in the Seventh Order, Heptagynia. Heptandria is the smallest of all the classes; we do not find here as in most of the other classes, any natural families of plants, but the few genera which it contains not only differ in natural characters from other plants, but seem to have no general points of resemblance among themselves.

LECTURE XXV.

CLASS VIII—OCTANDRIA—*Monogynia.*

THE eighth class although not large contains some beautiful and useful plants.

One of the first plants with which we meet in this class, is the Scabish, (*Œnothera,*) sometimes called Evening primrose. Many species of this are common to our country, some grow to the height of five feet. The flowers are generally of a pale yellow, and in some species they remain closed during the greater part of the day, and open as the sun is near setting. This process of their opening is very curious, the calyx suddenly springs out and turns itself back quite to the stem, and the petals being thus released from the confinement in which they had been held by the calyx, immediately expand; there are few flowers which thus hail the setting sun, though many salute it at its rising! The flowers of the Œnothera are thickly clustered on a spike, and it is said that "each one after expanding once, fades and never again blossoms."* This singular flower has been observed in dark nights to throw out a light resembling that of phosphorus. The regularity of the parts of this flower renders it a good example of the eighth class; the different parts of its corolla preserve in their divisions the number four, or half the number of stamens. It has 4 large yellow petals, the stigma is 4 cleft, capsule 4 celled, 4 valved, the seeds are affixed to a 4 sided receptacle.

To the same natural family as the Œnothera belongs the Willow herb, (*Epilobium,*) a very branching plant with red flowers and feathery seeds.

The Cranberry, (*Oxycoccus,*) belongs to the same natural order as the Whortleberry, but the latter having ten stamens is in the class Decandria. The fruit of the cranberry consists of large scarlet berries which contain an agreeable acid. The flowers are white, having a 4 toothed calyx, and corolla 4 parted. It is found in swamps in various parts of North America.

The Ladies'-ear-drop, (*Fuschsia,*) is a beautiful exotic. It has a funnel-form calyx, of a brilliant red colour, the petals are almost concealed by the calyx, they are purple and rolled round the stamens, which are long, extending themselves beyond the coloured calyx. This plant is a native of Mexico and South America, except one species brought from the island of New Zealand. Ten species are said by horticulturalists to be cultivated, but some of them are probably rather varieties than distinct species.

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* W. Barton.

The Heath,* (*Erica*,) which contains many hundred species, is not known to be indigenous to this country; fifty species are said to have been introduced. The common Heath has bell-form flowers, small and delicate, with the colour pink or varying into other colours; the flowers intermixed with the delicate green of its leaves produce a fine effect. The kind of soil necessary to the growth of the heath, is peat earth; this is very common in England and Scotland, in which countries this plant abounds. The branches are used in England for heating ovens, and making brooms. In the Highlands of Scotland, the poor make use of it to thatch the roofs of their cottages, and their beds are also made of it. The field in which this plant grows is termed a heath or heather.

> "The Erica here,
> That o'er Caledonian hills sublime,
> Spreads its dark mantle, where the Bees delight
> To seek their purest Honey, flourishes;
> Sometimes with bells like Amethysts, and then
> Paler, and shaded like the maiden's cheek
> With gradual blushes; other while, as white
> As frost that hangs upon the wintry spray."

The Daphne is a rare plant, one species is called the Lace-bark tree, from the resemblance of its inner bark or *liber* to net work or lace. This bark is very beautiful, consisting of layers which may be pulled out into fine white web, three or four feet wide; this is sometimes used for ladies' dresses and may even be washed without injury. Charles I. of England was presented by the governor of Jamaica with a cravat made of this web. The plant is a native of the West Indies.

The Nasturtion, (Tropœolum,) is a very commonly cultivated exotic. It has not a regularity of parts; the divisions of the corolla and calyx are not four or eight, which we might expect from its eight stamens, but consists of five petals. The fruit consists of three seeds; these are used for pickles. "The generic name, (Tropœolum,) signifies a *trophy plant*; this alludes to its use for decorating bowers, and the resemblance of its peltate leaves to shields, as well as of its flowers to golden helmets, pierced through and stained with blood."†

The *Second Order* of the 8th class has few plants of importance.

The *Third Order* contains the Buckwheat, (Polygonum,) which is classed in the same natural order as the dock, pigweed, &c., "having flowers destitute of beauty and gay colouring." The genus is extensive, containing many plants which are considered as common weeds; the species, *fagopyrum*, is the true Buckwheat, the use of which as an article of food is too well known to need a remark. This plant is variable in its number of stamens; the fruit is one angular seed.

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* The term *heath* is said to have originated from an old Saxon word, alluding to the *heat* which the plant affords as fuel.

† Sir J. E. Smith.

In the *Fourth Order* of this class is a very rare plant called Paris. It is said to have been named after Paris a prince of ancient Troy, who was remarkable for his beauty. In every part of the flower there is the most perfect regularity; the numbers four and eight prevailing in every division. It has 8 stamens, 4 pistils, 4 petals, a 4 leaved calyx, 4 sided 4 celled pericarp, which contains eight seeds, and 4 large spreading leaves at a little distance below the flower. The colour of the whole is green.

CLASS IX—ENNEANDRIA—*Monogynia*.

This is also a very small class. In the *First Order* we find the genus, Laurus, which includes the Cinnamon, Bay, Sassafras, Camphor, Spice bush, &c. The Bay (Laurus nobilis) is a native of Italy; the Romans considered it a favourite of the Muses. The emperor Tiberius wore it not only as a triumphal crown, but as a protector against thunder; as it was thought that Jupiter had a particular regard for the plant. The Laurel as well as the Olive was considered as an emblem of peace, it was sometimes called Laurus *pacifera*, the peace-making Laurel. If its branches were carried among contending armies it was a signal for the cessation of arms. Poets crowned with Laurel were called *laureates*.

Camphor is the produce of the Laurus *camphora*, a large tree which grows in Japan; it is said that a species of this plant has been discovered in Georgia.

"The LAURUS *cinnamomum* is a tree which grows to the height of twenty feet; it sends out numerous branches which are crowned with a smooth bark. The leaves are of a bright green, standing in opposite pairs. The petals are six, of a greenish white colour. The fruit is a pulpy pericarp enclosing a nut. This tree is a native of Ceylon, where it grows very common in the woods and hedges. The cinnamon imported is the inner bark (*liber*) of the tree; it is remarkable that the leaves, fruit, and root all yield oil of very different qualities; that produced from the leaves is called the *oil of cloves*. That obtained from the fruit is of a thick consistence, very fragrant, and is made into candles for the use of the king. The bark of the roots affords an aromatic oil called the *oil of camphor*.

"The Sassafras tree (Lauras sassafras) is a native American plant; when first introduced into Europe, it sold for a great price, the oil was highly valued for medicinal uses. It grows on the borders of streams and in woods; it is often no larger than a shrub; its flowers are yellow, its fruit blue berries. The LAURUS *benzoin* has scarlet berries, it is an aromatic plant."*

The *Second Order* contains no remarkable plants.

TRIGYNIA.

The *Third Order* presents us with but one genus, which of itself renders the order important: it is the Rhubarb, (Rheum); in one species the RHEUM *tartaricum;* the leaves are acid, and on this account, when young, are used for making pies; this is a native of Tartary, but now common in our gardens. The RHEUM *palmatum* is the plant which produces the medicinal rhubarb; this is obtained from the roots, which are thick, fleshy, and yellow. This plant is cultivated in England, and is remarkable for the rapidity of its growth. An English writer asserts that its stem has been known to grow more than eleven feet in three months; that some of its leaves were five feet in circumference; that the root also grows to a great size; and that some had been carried to England which weighed more than seventy pounds.

We have now closed our considerations of the ninth class. You will recollect our lecture commenced with the eighth, which we found, though not a large class, to be an interesting one. The ninth, with the exception of two genera, Laurus and Rheum, presented few considerations of importance; the ninth, the seventh, and first, are among the smallest of the artificial classes.

We have dwelt somewhat at length upon exotics, because they are seldom described in botanical works in common use. If you become interested in the study of plants, you will naturally wish to know something about those which you are in the habit of using for food or medicine, or to which, as in the laurel of the ancients, allusions are often made in the books which you read.

It is important, however, for you to seek for a practical knowledge of botany from the actual observation of our own native plants; to find them in their own homes, in the clefts of rocks, by the side of the brooks, and in the shady woods; it is there you will find nature in her unvitiated simplicity. We do not go to the crowded city to find men exhibiting without disguise the feelings of the heart. The flower transplanted from its rural abodes, though not a moral agent, and, therefore, incapable of moral transformation; yet exhibits in the splendid green house a physical metamorphosis, not less remarkable than the moral change which luxury too often produces upon the character of man.

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* Woodville.

LECTURE XXVI.

CLASS X—DECANDRIA.

Plants of this class have ten stamens, but this circumstance alone would not distinguish them from some of the other classes; the number of stamens must not only be ten, but these must be distinct from each other; that is, neither united together by their filaments below, nor by their anthers above. Some of the classes which are to follow, viz: Monadelphia, Diadelphia, Gynandria, and the two classes with stamens and pistils on separate flowers, may also have ten stamens; but circumstances respecting the situation of these organs distinguish these classes from each other.

MONOGYNIA.

In the *First Order* of the tenth class we find some plants with papilionaceous or butterfly shaped corollas; these, because their filaments are not united in two sets, are separated from the natural family to which they belong, and which are mostly in the class Diadelphia. Among those which are thus removed from the class where, from their general appearance, they might have been looked for, is the Wild indigo, (Baptisia,) a handsome plant with yellow flowers, two or three feet in height, and very branching; the stem and leaves are of a bluish green. This is found in dry sandy woods; it has been used as a substitute for indigo.

The Wild-pea, (Cassia,) is another genus of the papilionaceous tribe. It has several species, one of which is called the American senna, (Cassia *marylandica,*) on account of its medicinal qualities. Another species is Cassia *nictitans*, with very small yellow flowers and beautiful pinnate leaves, which remain folded at night; it shrinks back from the touch, for which reason it is called the American sensitive plant.

A plant called by the Indians, Red-bud, (Cercis *canadensis,*) belongs to the same natural family. It is a large tree appearing as early as April, loaded with clusters of fine crimson flowers; the leaves, which are large and heart-shaped, do not appear as early as the blossoms. The beautiful aspect of the tree attracts to it many insects, particularly humble bees. A botanist* says, "I have often observed hundreds of the common humble bees lying dead under these trees while in flower. Probably the flower contains something pernicious to them." This is not the only example of fatal consequences resulting from trusting too much to external appearances! This tree is not improperly called Judas' tree, a name by which it is often known.

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* W. P. C. Barton.

The three genera of plants which we have now noticed, under the first order of this class, all bear fruit in that kind of pod called a legume; this is the case, in general, with the papilionaceous flowers.

In shady woods, where the soil is loose and rich, we find in June and July the Winter-green, (Gaultheria,) a perennial plant which grows to the height of eight or ten inches; the pleasant taste of the leaves of this plant, and the still finer flavour of its fruit are well known; the drooping blossom is also very delicate and beautiful, consisting of a bell-form corolla, (not unlike the Lily of the Valley,) the colour of which is white, tinged with pink.

Though you may have often enjoyed eating the fruit and leaves of the winter-green, you will experience a delight which this mere pleasure of sense could not have afforded, when in your botanical rambles in the woods, you chance to meet with this plant in blossom, with its little flowers just peeping out from a bed of dry leaves: you may then enjoy the pleasure of a beautiful object of sight, with the higher enjoyment of intellectual gratification, by tracing in it, not only intrinsic beauty, but those characters which give it a definite place in scientific arrangement.

In the same natural family with the Winter-green are two genera, Pyrola and Chimaphila, which by some botanists have been included under one; but they appear to be sufficiently distinct from each other to constitute a separate genus. These plants belong to the natural order Bicornes, or two horns; alluding to the two protuberances like strait horns which appear on their anthers. The Heath in the 8th class is of the same natural family, as also the Whortleberry, (Vaccineum,) which contains a great many species; the Europeans place this genus in the class Octandria, but an American botanist* says, "that of twenty-five species in our country, not one is found with eight stamens, and in Europe only three species are known with that number." He very properly inquires, whether all our American species ought to be misplaced on account of those few European species. The Cranberry, (Oxycoccus,) which was formerly considered a species of the same genus as the Whortleberry, as it has but eight stamens, is removed into the eighth class. Among the different species of the whortleberry is one with blue berries, another with very black berries, and the bilberry, which is a large shrub from five to eight feet high.

A great proportion of the plants in the first order of the tenth class are to be found in shady woods in June and July. We cannot here enumerate but few of them; in the description of the genera of plants which we shall have provided, you will be able to find the most common ones.

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* Eaton.

We will not however omit to mention the Monotropa, a most curious little plant; several stems of a few inches in height, usually grow up in a cluster, each stem supporting a single flower, which, in form, resembles a tobacco pipe. The stems have scales upon them but no leaves, the whole plant is perfectly white and looks as if made of wax; it is sometimes called Indian pipe. You must look for this in shady woods near the roots of old trees, in June or the first of July.

Rhododendron, or as it is sometimes called the Mountain laurel or Rose bay, is an evergreen with large and beautiful oval leaves, found growing on the sides of mountains, or in wet swamps of cedar; it flourishes beneath the shade of the trees; the pink and white flowers appear in large showy clusters and continue in bloom for a long period; they have a 5 toothed calyx, a 5 cleft funnel form, somewhat irregular corolla, stamens 10, sometimes half the number, capsule 5 celled, 5 valved.

Connected by natural relations to the Rose bay or *Rhododendron* is the American laurel, (Kalmia,) a splendid shrub, sometimes found ten or thirteen feet high. On the Catskill mountains, it is said to have been seen twenty feet in height; the flowers grow in that kind of cluster called a *corymb;* they are either white or red, but this fair and beautiful shrub is of a poisonous nature, particularly fatal to sheep who are attracted towards it; one species of the Kalmia is on this account called sheep laurel.

Among the plants which have a place in this part of the artificial system, is the Dionæa *muscipula*, or Venus' fly trap. This is a native of North Carolina; the leaves spring from the roots, each leaf has at its extremity a kind of appendage, like a small leaf doubled, this is bordered on its edges by glands, resembling little hairs, containing a liquid that attracts insects; but no sooner does the unfortunate insect alight upon the leaf, than with a sudden spring, it closes itself, and the little prisoner is crushed to death in the midst of the sweets it had imprudently attempted to seize; after the insect overcome by the closeness of the grasp has expired, the leaf again unfolds itself. These movements are accounted for, by attributing to the plant a power of irritability, which is excited by the touch of any object. Although we account for the phenomenon by attributing it to the irritability of the plant, we have only removed the difficulty by adducing a cause which itself remains to be explained. We shall in a future lecture make some remarks upon the irritability, or as it is sometimes called, sensibility of plants; many curious and interesting facts, respecting this singular property of vegetables, may be collected, many plausible theories to account for it have been given; but the efficient cause is too deep for man to penetrate, his feeble faculties cannot comprehend the designs and operations of Almighty Power.

The *Second Order* of the tenth class contains the ***Hydrangea***, an elegant East Indian exotic; a species of this plant, a shrub with white flowers, is said to have been found on the banks of the Schuylkill river.

The Pink (Dianthus) belongs to an extensive natural order, *Caryophylleæ*, which is distinguished by having five petals inserted with claws. One native species of the genus Dianthus, called *armeria*, or Wild pink, has been found in New-Jersey.

The *Third Order*, or Trigynia, contains some plants which belong to the same natural order as the pink.

The *Fourth Order*, Tetragynia, is not important.

The *Fifth Order*, Pentagynia, produces a plant *Agrostemma*, known by the name of Cockle, this is very common in fields; although troublesome and regarded but as a weed, it is a handsome pink-like plant, bearing a deep red or purple blossom; in its genuine character it differs little from the pink genus, except in having five pistils instead of two, therefore it is placed in the fifth order.

Here is also found the Sorrel, (Oxalis,) which produce the oxalic acid, similar in its properties to the juice of lemons; it is useful in taking the stains from linen.

In the *Tenth Order* is the Poke-weed, (Phytolacca,) this is a very common plant; the fruit of which, consists of large dark purple berries, often used by children for the purpose of colouring purple. The young shoots are tender and are sometimes eaten as a substitute for asparagus. The flower of this plant presents us with 10 stamens, 10 styles, a calyx with 5 white leaves, resembling petals, a berry superior, (above the germ,) with 10 cells and 10 seeds.

We have now finished a review of the ten first classes, or the first group of classes, those which depend upon the single circumstance of the number of separate stamens; in our next lecture we shall consider the two classes which depend on the number and insertion of the stamens.

LECTURE XXVII.

CLASS XI—ICOSANDRIA.

In the class now before us, the number of stamens is not the characteristic mark of distinction; this consists in the manner of the insertion of these organs. In the analysis of the Rose, which belongs to the eleventh, you have already become acquainted with the leading features of this class, and will, therefore, the less need a minute detail of these elementary distinctions.

Had we followed the classification, which has, until recently, been admitted by writers on botany, we should have had another class to have examined before we came to Icosandria; this was called Dodecandria, from *Dodeka* 12, and *andria* stamen; it was not, as you might infer from the name, confined to 12 stamens, but contained from 10 to 20, without any regard to their insertion, as standing either upon the calyx or receptacle. This class produced confusion in the science of botany, for it is found that plants having more than ten stamens, frequently vary as to *their number;* and there being no difficulty in distributing all plants of this class into the two next, it has been by consent of most botanists left out of the classification; and the plants which it contained, arranged under Icosandria, if the stamens were *on the calyx*, and Polyandria, if the stamens were inserted upon the *receptacle*. The *manner of insertion is always the same*, therefore, there can be no confusion with respect to determining the classes upon this principle.

You will observe that this omission of one class changes the numbers of the remaining classes; as Icosandria, which was formerly the twelfth, is now the eleventh, and so on with the other classes. It is on account of these changes that we wish you to learn the classes by their appropriate names, as Monandria, Diandria, rather than to confine yourselves merely to the numbers, as first, second, &c. Besides, the name of each class is expressive of its character; the name, when you understand its derivation, will at once convey to you the idea of this character, which, by the number alone, could not be done; for example, the term *eleventh class*, conveys no distinction but that of mere number; but the classical name Icosandria, (from Eikosi 20, and andria stamen,) means 20 stamens; this then reminds you of the circumstance on which the class is founded. You will do well to examine into the derivation of the names of the classes and orders, an explanation of which you will find in the synopsis of classes and orders.

The name Icosandria, seems not, however, exactly well chosen to represent the eleventh class; because it is not confined to twenty stamens, having sometimes as few as ten, and in some cases nearly a hundred stamens. An American Botanist* has proposed to call the class *Calycandria*, from calyx† and andria, as the insertion of the stamens on the calyx is the essential circumstance on which the class depends; this name has been approved, but still the old name is used. Thus with respect to the name given to the great American Continent, all allow it should have been Columbia, after Columbus, its discoverer; but when once custom has sanctioned a name, it becomes very difficult to overcome this authority by arguments drawn from reason. We shall, therefore, in compliance with the use of botanists, call the class Icosandria.

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* Darlington.

† *Calyx*, genitive in Latin *Calycis*.

The first genus which we meet with in this class is CACTUS, commonly called Prickly-pear. This contains many species; a very splendid one is the Night-blooming Cereus, (CACTUS *grandiflorus*,) having flowers nearly a foot in diameter, with the calyx yellow, and the petals white; they begin to open soon after the setting of the sun, and close before its rising, never again to blossom. Another species, (*speciosissimus*,) with flowers of the colour of crimson-velvet; it is said to be still more superb than the grandiflorus; this genus belongs to a natural order, *Succulentæ*, or juicy plants; they are in general destitute of leaves, but the stems appear like a series of thick, fleshy leaves, one growing from the top of another.

PRUNUS is the genus which contains the various kinds of the Plum, Cherry, and Sloe: this genus, according to ancient writers, was brought from Syria into Greece, and from thence into Italy. The Roman poets often notice its fruit. We have several native species of it.

The Pomegranate, (PUNICA,) is a shrubby-tree, which is a native of Spain, Italy, and Barbary, and flowers from June till September. The Greek writers were acquainted with it, and we are told by Pliny, that its fruit was sold in the neighbourhood of Carthage. It is cultivated in England and in the United States; not on account of its fruit, which does not come to perfection so far to the north, but as its large and beautiful scarlet flowers render it an ornamental plant.

The genus AMYGDALUS contains the Peach and the Almond. The latter is a native of warm countries, and seems to have been known in the remotest times on antiquity.

DI-PENTAGYNIA.

The four orders in the class Icosandria which follow the first, are included under one, called Di-pentagynia, signifying two and five pistils. We find in this order the Hawthorn, (Cratægus,) a shrub with deep green foliage, white flowers and scarlet berries, and with very large and strong thorns.

The genus Pyrus which contains the Apple and Pear, belongs to the natural order Pomaceæ.* The *varieties* of these fruits are the effect of cultivation, not the produce of different species. By means of grafting or innoculation, which consists in inserting the sprout of one tree into another, good fruit may be produced upon a tree which before produced a poorer kind.

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* So called from Pomum, an Apple.

POLYGYNIA.

In the 13th order we find the Rose, this, in its natural state contains but five petals; it is remarkable for the change made in it by cultivation. Several species of the Rose are indigenous to North America; as the small wild rose, the sweet briar, and swamp rose.

"*Red* and *white roses* are remarkable in English history as emblems of the houses of *York* and *Lancaster;* for when those families contended for the crown, in the reign of Henry the Sixth, the white rose distinguished the partizans of the house of York, and the red those of Lancaster. The Moss rose, ROSA *muscosa*, has its name from the substance like moss, with which the flower, stems, and calyx are covered; it is in fact a collection of glands, containing a resinous and fragrant fluid. Roses are the favourite plants in all countries where they are found; but it is remarkable that none have ever been met with in the southern hemisphere. Among the ancients, particularly the Egyptians, roses were considered as symbols of silence, for which reason the goddess Isis, and her son Harpocrates who was the god of silence, were crowned with chaplets of those flowers."*

Among the nations of the east, particularly in Persia, the rose flourishes in great beauty and is highly valued. The Persians poetically imagine a peculiar sympathy between the rose and nightingale. The following lines upon the rose are a translation from the Greek by Moore.

"Oh! there is nought in nature bright,
Where Roses do not shed their light!
The Rose distils a healing balm,
The beating pulse of pain to calm;
Preserves the cold inurned clay,
And mocks the vestige of decay;
And when at length, in pale decline,
Its florid beauties fade and pine;
Sweet as in youth, its balmy breath,
Diffuses odour even in death!"†

The Blackberry (Rubus) has a flower resembling the rose in general aspect; there are several species of the Rubus, one which produces the common Blackberry, another the Red-raspberry, another the Black-raspberry, and another the Dewberry. One species of the Rubus produces large and beautiful deep red flowers, the fruit is dry and not eatable.

The Strawberry belongs to the same natural and artificial order as the Rose, these genera with several others form an order called by Jussieu, Rosaceous plants, but included by Linnæus in his order Pomaceæ.

The gathering of strawberries in the fields, is among the rural enjoyments of children, which are, in after life, recollected with pleasure, not unfrequently mingled with melancholy reflections, upon the contrast of that happy season, with the sorrows, with which maturer years are shaded.

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* Conversations on Botany. † ib.

"The *Strawberry* blooms upon its lowly bed,
Plant of my native soil! The Lime may fling,
More potent fragrance on the zephyr's wing:
The milky Cocoa richer juices shed,
And white Guava lovelier blossoms spread;
But not, like thee, to fond remembrance bring,
The vanish'd hours of life's enchanting spring.
Short calendar of joys forever fled!
Thou bidst the scenes of childhood rise to view,
The wild wood path which fancy loves to trace,
Where, veiled in leaves, thy fruit of rosy hue,
Lurked on its pliant stem with modest grace.
But, ah! when thought would later years renew,
Alas! successive sorrows crowd the space!"*

The class Icosandria furnishes us with a great variety of fine fruits, more perhaps than any other of the artificial classes.

Many valuable articles for medicinal use are found here. A great proportion of the genera to be found in this class, are natives of the United States.

LECTURE XXVIII.

CLASS XII—POLYANDRIA.

In this class we find the stamens separate from the calyx, and attached to the receptacle or top of the flower stem. The number of stamens in this class varies from twenty to some hundreds. This class does not, like the one we have last examined, contain a great many delicious fruits, but rather abounds in poisonous and active vegetables. The mode of the insertion of the stamens is to be regarded in considering the wholesome qualities of plants; it is asserted that no plant with the stamens on the calyx is poisonous; we know that very many with the stamens upon the receptacle are so.

In the analysis of the Poppy we have already examined the peculiar characteristics of this class.

MONOGYNIA.

We find in the first order some flowers of a curious appearance, as the Mandrake, (Podophyllum,) the distinction between this and the Mandrake of the ancients, was remarked under the class Pentandria.

This plant is very common in moist, shady places, where you may often see great quantities of it growing together; each stem supports a large white flower and two large peltate, palmate leaves; the fruit is yellow and eaten by many as a delicacy.

The Side-saddle flower (Sarracenia) is a very curious and elegant plant; it has large leaves proceeding directly from the root. These leaves form a kind of cup, capable of containing a gill or more of water, with which liquid they are usually filled. The stem is of that kind called a scape, growing to the height of one or two feet, bearing a single large purple flower. This plant is found in swamps; its common name, Side-saddle flower, is given in reference to the form of its leaf. It is sometimes called Adam's cup, in reference to the cup of the leaf.

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* Miss Helen Maria Williams.

The name of the genus SARRACENIA, is derived from an imaginary resemblance of the flower, to the head of a Saracen or Turk enveloped in his crimson turban. No foreign plant as an object of curiosity, can exceed this native of our own swamps; it is well worth the trouble of cultivation by those who are fond of collecting rare plants. This is placed by Linnæus in an order called Miscellaneæ, which contains some other plants that seem to have no affinity either among themselves or to any others known.

The White Pond Lily, (Nymphæa,*) is a splendid American plant, very fragrant and with a larger leaf than almost any other northern plant. The Yellow Pond-lily, (Nuphar,) though less showy, is equally curious in its structure.

The Poppy, (Papaver,) has already been examined as to its external characters, the narcotic qualities are also well known.

In the same artificial class and order is the Tea tree, (THEA); of this plant there are two species, the bohea tea (*bohea*) and the green tea (*viridis*). It is a small ever green tree or shrub, much branched and covered with a rough, dark coloured bark. The flowers are white, the leaves are lanceolate and veined, the capsule or seed vessel is three celled, opening, the seeds are three, oblong and brown. This shrub is a native of China and Japan. Some suppose, that in reality, all the teas are taken from the same botanical species, and that the different flavour and appearance of them depend upon the nature of the soil, the culture, and the method of preparing the leaves.

On account of the secret and jealous policy of the Chinese, the natural history of the Tea plant is less known than might be expected from its very general use. The Chinese begin in February to gather the tea leaves, when they are young and yet unexpanded. The second collection is made in April, and the third in June. The first gathering which consists only of the young and tender leaves, is the *Imperial tea:* the other two kinds are less odorous; the last collected is the coarsest and cheapest kind. Tea was introduced into Europe by the Dutch East India Company, in the year 1666, when it sold for sixty shillings a pound, and for many years its great price limited its use to the most wealthy. In considering the effects of tea upon the human system, medical writers differ in opinion, and a doubt seems to remain whether the use of it is on the whole beneficial or injurious to the health of mankind. If it is not injurious to health, the use of it no doubt promotes the happiness of society, as it is exhilarating, and adds to the enjoyment of social intercourse.

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* An extensive locality of this plant exists upon the Saratoga lake. I have seen its surface for a quarter of a mile whitened by these lilies, occasionally intermixed with the yellow lilies, and the rich blue of the Pontederia, another beautiful aquatic plant.

The genus Citrus, which contains the Orange and Lemon, is found here, making an exception to the general remark, that this class does not contain fruits; this genus furnishes the *citric* acid.

DI-PENTAGYNIA.

The four orders following the order Monogynia, are as in the preceding class, united into one, called as before Di-pentagynia, or from two to five styles.

We find here some plants of a poisonous nature, as the Larkspur, Monk's-hood, and the Columbine: these belong to a natural order called *Multisiliquæ*, or many pods, there being many pod-form capsules to each flower.

In the same order we find the Peony, (Pæonia,) a showy flower which when in its native state, has a 5 leaved calyx, a corolla with 5 petals, and 2 or 3 germs, each crowned by a stigma; the capsules the same in number as the germs, each contains several seeds; this flower is particularly remarkable for its change by cultivation.

POLYGYNIA.

The *Thirteenth Order* is divided into two sections. 1st, flowers with no calyx or perianth. 2d, with a perianth. In the first section we find several interesting native plants. The Clematis or Virgin's bower, is a beautiful climbing plant, which supports itself by winding its petioles or leaf-bearing stems around other plants; the flowers are white and clustered in corymbs; the seed has a long silk-like fringe which gives it a fine appearance after the blossoms have faded. This plant contains many species, and is cultivated both in this country and in Europe.

The **Anemone** is a beautiful native flower; by cultivation its petals multiply as in the Rose.

The **Ranunculus** contains many species: it belongs to the same natural family as the Anemone; but as you will find these plants very common, and are now able to analyze them, we will not at this time devote our attention to their description.

The **Hellebore**, (*Helleborus*,) is an exotic much spoken of by classical writers. Hippocrates one of the most ancient physicians remarks upon its qualities: it grew about Mount Olympus, and was regarded as a very poisonous plant.

The Magnolia* and Tulip tree are among the most splendid trees of North America; they are said also to be common to China. The Magnolia grandiflora extends from South Carolina to the isthmus of Darien. In some cases these trees rise to the height of 90 feet before sending off any considerable branches; the spreading top is then clothed with deep green, oblong, oval leaves like a Laurel; these are at most seasons enlivened by large and fragrant white flowers.

The class Polyandria, though not important for its fruits, contains some of the most valuable medicinal plants. Opium, which is the produce of the Papaver *somniferum*, (Poppy causing sleep,) is a very important medicine, not only having the power of soothing pain, but assisting in the cure of many diseases.

LECTURE XXIX.

CLASS XIII—DIDYNAMIA, AND XIV—TETRADYNAMIA.

THE two classes which are to afford subjects for our present observation, are founded upon the *number* and *relative length* of the stamens.

In their orders the number of styles is not regarded, but new circumstances of distinction are introduced, viz: the seeds being enclosed in a capsule, or destitute of any such covering; and the comparative length of pods.

CLASS DIDYNAMIA.

This class has flowers with four stamens, two of which are longer than the other two; plants of this class are in general easily distinguished, the stamens stand in pairs, the outer pair being longer, the inner pair shorter, and converging or inclining forward.

The class contains two orders, Gymnospermia, (naked seeds,) and Angiospermia, (seeds covered).

GYMNOSPERMIA.

In the 1*st order*, which contains plants with four naked seeds, the flowers grow in whorls or rings, having a square or angled stem, and leaves opposite. The corollas are *labiate*, having divisions resembling lips, and they are also called *ringent*, or gaping, because the lips appear to be open. The calyx is either in five equal parts, or consists of two lips.

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* Named in honour of Magnol, a distinguished botanist.

The plants of this order are mostly aromatic; very few are poisonous. We find here the Mint, Lavander, Penny-royal, Savory, Balm, and others of a similar nature. They are included under the natural order of Linnæus, called *Verticillatae.** For more particular remarks upon these plants, you can consult the article on the Labiate flowers.

ANGIOSPERMIA.

The *2d order* contains those plants which have their seed covered, or in a capsule; the seeds are also numerous. Plants of this order appear to have an affinity with some families of the class Pentandria. Many have, in addition to the four stamens, a fifth filament, which appears to be the rudiment of another stamen; sometimes the irregular corolla varies into a regular form with five divisions. Among those which exhibit the imperfect fifth stamen, are the Trumpet-flower, Foxglove, and Penstemon.

In this order the personate corollas are to be found, or such labiate flowers as have closed lips. These plants differ much in their natural characters from those of the other order. None of them are used in preparations for food, as are the Thyme and Savory of the first order, but many of them possess powerful medicinal properties; as the *Foxglove,* (*Digitalis,*) and the *Cancer root,* (*Epiphegus.*) They are in general a beautiful collection of plants, few flowers are more splendid than the Gerardia and the Trumpet-flower.

As the plants of this class are numerous in every part of the United States, you will have no difficulty in procuring them for analysis; they are not usually found in blossom until the middle of summer.

CLASS XIV—TETRADYNAMIA.

In this class we find the cruciform plants, or such as have four petals in the form of a cross; the stamens are six, four of which are longer than the remaining two; the calyx has four leaves. The orders in this class are two, depending on the comparative length of the pods; this distinction is not so definite as that which marked the orders of the class Didynamia. Plants of this class are not poisonous, many of them furnish us with useful vegetables for food.

SILICULOSA.

The *First Order* contains plants which produce a short and round pod; a distinction in this order is made between such plants as have pods with a notch at the top, and such as have none, or are *entire.*

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* From *verticillus*, a whorl.

The Pepper grass, (Lepidium,) and the Shepherd's purse, (Thlaspi,) afford examples of this order. These and the remaining plants found here, belong to the natural order *Siliquosæ,* or such as have silique pods, the properties of which are nutritious and medicinal.

SILIQUOSA.

The *Second Order* contains such plants as have long and narrow pods; as the Radish and Mustard. The Cabbage, (Brassica,) is an exotic; it contains the turnip species. These belong to the same natural family of plants as the first order.

In this lecture we have pointed out to you the most important characters of the two classes, which depend upon considerations derived from the number and comparative length of the stamens; the one class having four and the other six stamens of varying lengths. Both classes we found to have two orders, not as in the preceding classes, depending upon the styles; but in the one class on the situation of the seed as lying in the calyx, or enclosed in a seed-vessel, in the other class from the comparative length of the pericarp or pod.

LECTURE XXX.

CLASS XV—MONADELPHIA.

WE are now to consider the brotherhoods, as the names of these classes signify, Monadelphia one brotherhood, and Diadelphia two brotherhoods, in allusion to the manner in which the filaments are connected in *one or two sets.* The orders in this class are arranged according to the number of stamens, a character which distinguishes the first ten classes; but no confusion arises from taking the same character in these classes to distinguish the orders, since in the classes themselves the number of stamens is not reckoned as a mark of distinction.

CLASS MONADELPHIA.

In this class we include all such plants as have their filaments united in one set, forming a tube. In this respect, this class differs from all the preceding ones, for in those we found the stamens entirely separate; in this you will observe that the anthers are separate although the filaments are joined. We cannot in this class, as in the two preceding ones, point out any prevailing form of the corolla; the mark of distinction here is

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in some cases rather doubtful, the filaments being sometimes broad at their base and yet not entirely connected.

You will recollect that the orders here depend upon the number of stamens. We have no first order in this class, for a plant to be placed here, it must have *filaments united*, and one filament or stamen could not possess this requisite of union.

The *Third Order* is the first which occurs; this is called *Triandria*, which you know is the name of the third class, and signifies three stamens; here then are three stamens united by their filaments into a tube. We find in this order a handsome plant, called Blue-eyed-grass, the three filaments have the appearance of being but one; the corolla is tubular and 6 cleft, style 1, capsule 3 celled; it belongs to the family of sword-leaved plants, Ensatæ.

PENTANDRIA.

The *Fifth Order*, or five stamens, next occurs; this presents us with the Passion-flower, (Passiflora,) a climbing plant, peculiar to the warm countries of America. "Its immensely long, and often woody branches, attain the summits of the loftiest trees, or trail upon the ground adorned with perennially green, or falling leaves, sometimes palmate, or lobed like fingers, at others appearing like the Laurel. They sustain themselves by means of undivided tendrils; and send out a succession of the most curious and splendid flowers, of which no other part of the world offers any counterpart."*

Of this genus a number of species produce fruits of great excellence; this fruit in South America is called Purchas. It is said that 60 species of this genus are collected at the Linnæan garden near New-York.

The generic characters of the Passion-flower are a coloured calyx, 5 parted, 5 petals inserted upon the calyx, 5 stamens, and 3 pistils, the nectary a triple crown of filaments. The very singular appearance of this flower in the arrangements of its stamens in the form of a cross, and its triple crown, has suggested the idea of its being emblematic of the passion or suffering of our Saviour; this idea is supposed to have given rise to its name.

This plant was at one time placed in the class Gynandria, upon the supposition that its stamens stood upon the pistil. An English botanist† thinks it should be placed in the class Pentandria, and order Trigynia. Its situation in the class and order under which we have described it, is however that generally assigned it by modern writers.

In this order is also placed the Stork's-bill geranium, (Erodium,) it is an exotic, and belongs to the natural family *Gerania*.

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* Nuttall.

† Smith.

HEPTANDRIA.

The *Seventh Order* contains the genus Pelargonium, which also belongs to the family Gerania; this genus includes the greater number of green house Geraniums; it is taken from the tenth order and placed here, because, although its flowers have 10 filaments, but 7 of them bear anthers; therefore they have but 7 perfect stamens. The flower of this genus is somewhat irregular. Among the varieties of the Pelargonium now cultivated in the United States, are,

The *Fairy queen geranium*, with striped flowers, large and handsome leaves.

The *Fiery flowered*, with cordate leaves, and black and scarlet flowers.

The *Balm scented*, with leaves deeply five lobed, the flowers dark red and black.

The *Grandiflorum*, has an erect stem, little branched, with smooth leaves from five to seven lobed; as its name implies, the flowers are large.

The *Large bracted*, has an erect stem; leaves cordate or heart shaped, flowers large and white, with some streaks of purple.

Frequent flowering, or *fish*, a shrubby brown stem, with flat, cordate, five lobed leaves, and red flowers, with spots of black and deep red.

Peppermint scented, or *Velvet leaved*, a shrubby stem much branched; leaves cordate, five lobed, soft to the touch like velvet, flowers small, white and purple.

Nutmeg scented or *fragrant*, an erect stem much branched, leaves small, cordate and three lobed, flowers small and pale, tinged with blue.

Royal purple, stem branched; flat cordate leaves, five lobed; flowers large and of a bright purple.

Another genus of the Geranium family is called Hoarea—this contains several varieties, differing chiefly from the Pelargonium, in having a tuberous root, with *radical* leaves; most of the species are yellow. The plants of the natural family Gerania are mostly natives of the Cape of Good Hope, a region to which we are indebted for many of our finest exotics.*

DECANDRIA.

The *Tenth Order* contains the genus *Geranium*, which differs from the Pelargonium, in having a regular calyx and corolla, and also in producing 10 perfect stamens, which vary in length, every alternate one being longer; 5 glands adhere to the base of the five long filaments. We have some native species of this genus, the common Crane's bill GERANIUM *maculatum*, having large, showy, purple flowers, is often found in meadows during the first summer months.

The three families Erodium, Pelargonium, and Geranium, were formerly all united in one genus; but the difference in the number of stamens seems decidedly to separate them.

POLYANDRIA.

The *Thirteenth Order*, (many stamens) is composed entirely of a group of genera which are in the natural order COLUMNIFERÆ, stamens united in the form of a column; by Jussieu they have been collected into an order under the name of Malvaceæ. The peculiar characteristics of the whole group are, a calyx often double, 5 regular petals, stamens numerous, united by their filaments into a tube, and rising like a column in the centre of the flower; in the centre of this tube, formed by the stamens, are the styles, forming an inner bundle; the number of these is various, though often found to be eight. The number of seed vessels, each of which contains one seed, will be equal to the number of styles; these seed stand round in a circle.

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* This description of geraniums is mostly taken from a work on Horticulture by the proprietor of the Linnæan garden at Flushing.

Among the plants which compose this family, are the Hollyhock, the Mallows, and the Cotton, (*Gossypium.*) The CAMELLIA *japonica*, or Japan rose, a very splendid flower, equal in size to the largest rose, is found here. Its beauty of form and richness of colouring have a fine appearance, when contrasted with its dark green leaves.

Most of the native species of the class Monadelphia may, in the season of flowers, be easily procured for analysis. The hollyhock is in almost every garden, the common mallows grows wild about dwellings. You will find it a good example of the class Monadelphia.

The plants of this class vary in size from the low mallows to some of the largest trees that have yet been discovered; "the Silk cotton tree, (BOMBAX *pentandrum*,) is so large, and spreads its branches so widely that twenty thousand persons might stand under its branches. This tree is a native of Africa and South America. The Adansonia, a native of Senegal in Africa, is said to grow to the size of seventy feet in circumference; this tree also attains great age. In 1749, the learned Adanson saw two of these trees in the neighbourhood of Gorrea, upon one of which was inscribed the date of the fourteenth, and upon the other that of the fifteenth century! yet there were good reasons to suppose that the trees were not young when the dates were cut. It may be conjectured that they have sometimes attained to the age of eight or nine hundred years! an immense period of time for the existence of any species of organized bodies."*

Having now considered the class Monadelphia in its most important particulars, we will pass to the next class, which in common with this, is founded upon the number of the filaments.

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* Benjamin Smith.

LECTURE XXXI.

CLASS XVI—DIADELPHIA.

THIS is the class of two brotherhoods, the stamens being united by their filaments into two sets. The flowers of this class have already been described under the head of *Papilionaceous*, which you will recollect means butterfly shaped; this peculiar form of their corollas is an important mark of distinction in this class.

There are however two circumstances to be noted here, in order to prevent you from falling into error with respect to this class.

1st. There are some plants here which have their filaments united in one set; where a flower is papilionaceous, it is still kept in this class although there may be no apparent division in the brotherhood or set.

2d. Although the flower be papilionaceous, and has ten separate stamens, it is placed in the 10th class; this is the case with a few genera; as the Cassia and Wild Indigo. This circumstance was remarked under the tenth class.

The distinction of the filaments into sets is often somewhat difficult to be ascertained; in the pea for example, it is necessary to take a pin, and separate the filament which is alone, in order to perceive that it is not united to the other nine filaments. When they are separated, it is mostly in this way, with nine filaments together, and one which seems disconnected; there are but few examples of stamens being arranged in equal sets of five each.

The nature of the fruit in the Papilionaceous plants is Leguminous, or bearing a pod; like the bean and pea, called a legume.

The orders in this as in the preceding class are founded upon the number of stamens, the class not having appropriated to itself a character drawn from the same circumstance.

PENT-OCTANDRIA.

We could not expect from the character of the class, "stamens united into two sets," to find any plants with but 1 stamen; therefore there is no order until we find some plants which answer the classic character. Those with five or eight stamens are all placed in one order called Pent-octandria, (five and eight stamens); here we find Corydalis and Fumaria, belonging to a natural order Corydales, which includes such plants as are spurred, or are anomalous; the latter term signifying that their corolla is not such as can be described by any thing else.

166 [illegible] an elegant plant with bulbous roots; the The Corydalis [illegible]er ringent than papilionaceous. In some cases corolla is [illegible] have very broad bases, and scarcely seem united. the stamens find here POLYGALA, one species of which is called [illegible]neca snake-root; this not only produces a beautiful flower, but is valuable as a medicine. We have many species of this genus, and you will no doubt be able to find specimens of it in the woods and meadows.

DECANDRIA.

The *Tenth Order* is wholly composed of plants with leguminous pods; the general character of these plants is a calyx often 5 parted, corolla 5 petalled, inserted on the calyx, consisting of a banner, two wings and a keel; stamens generally 10, mostly united into two sets, 9 and 1, germ free, style 1, legume generally 2 valved, 1 celled, sometimes transversely divided into many cells, seeds affixed to the edge on one side.

In this large family of plants with leguminous pods are many of great importance in the vegetable kingdom; but when we are able to give some general natural characters, there seems to be less need of particularizing each genus.

This circumstance of being able in description, to include the general characters of the plants of a large order in this class, shows it to be composed of an assemblage of natural plants. The singular form of the corolla and the nature of the fruit, with few exceptions, settle the character of this class. We have here many important plants which serve for food to man. The most savage nations usually pay some attention to Diadelphous plants. When Ferdinand de Sold marched his army into Florida, before the middle of the 16th century, he found the granaries of the natives well stored with Indian corn and certain "*leguminous seeds*;" which were probably the Lima bean, (Dolichos,) or some species of that genus; for the natives still continue to cultivate them.

This class furnishes valuable medicinal articles; as the Liquorice and Snake-root. It also furnishes us with plants for dying; as the Indigo, (INDIGOFERA *tinctoria*,) this is to be distinguished from the Wild Indigo, (Babtisia,) which during the revolutionary war was used for colouring. Some plants of this class seem to possess active properties; the seeds of the Lupine are said to be poisonous. A traveller states, that the inhabitants of the banks of the Nile, are often visited in the night by the hippopotamus or river horse, a large animal which does great damage to the gardens and fields; and that they destroy the animal by placing a quantity of the Lupine seeds near where he is expected; these he devours greedily; they soon swell in his stomach and distend it so much as to cause death.

A class called Polydelphia, or many brotherhoods, having stamens united in more than two sets, was formerly admitted, but it was thought to be unnecessary, and the genera which it contained have been transferred to the class Polyandria; the St. John's wort (Hypericum), is among the plants which were in the rejected class; this has its numerous stamens in three clusters, not united by their filaments; but even all the species of the Hypericum are not thus divided into separate parcels of stamens. This distinction, as the character of a class, is very properly laid aside; and the plants which were in the former 18th class Polydelphia, (*many brotherhoods*,) are now placed in the 12th class Polyandria, (*many stamens*.)

In the last two lectures, you will recollect we have treated of two classes distinguished by the union of their filaments. In one class, Monadelphia, the general character was that of filaments united in one set forming a tube; the orders of this class were founded on the number of stamens, and bore the same names as those classes which are founded on a similar circumstance of the stamens. In this class, no particular form of the corolla was found to be general, unless we except the last order, in which the Hollyhock flowers may serve as an example; having a double calyx of an unequal number of divisions, a corolla of five heart-shaped petals, united into one piece around the column, formed by the united filaments.

In the other class, Diadelphia, we found the marks of distinction to be,

1st. The union of the filaments into two sets,

2d. The butterfly-shaped corolla; and,

3d. The nature of the fruits; consisting of that kind of pod called a legume, and thus forming one great natural family of *Leguminous* plants, which furnish many of the most delicious table vegetables; such as peas, beans, &c.

The orders of this class were founded on the same circumstance of the stamens, which distinguished those of the preceding class.

We make these recapitulations for you, because it is always important in the consideration of a subject, to have a few clear ideas before you leave it; this is better than a great many imperfect or confined ones. It would, therefore, be well in all your studies, when you have read upon a subject, to ask yourself what are the main points to be remembered; and you will find the less important facts or ideas, by the natural suggestions of the mind, will readily cluster around the principal ones.

LECTURE XXXII.

CLASS XVII—SYNGENESIA.

We have now arrived at a class which contains a large portion of the vegetable tribes, particularly of those plants which blossom in the last summer months, and in autumn.

The term Syngenesia signifies a *union* of *anthers;* this circumstance, you can readily conceive, forms a difference between this class, and those which are distinguished by a union of filaments; in the one case, the tops of the stamens, or the anthers, are united, while the lower parts are separate; in the other case, the tops are separate, while the filaments, or lower parts of the stamens are united.

The number of stamens of the plants of this class is mostly 5, distinguished from the fifth class, not only by the union of the anthers, but by the compound character of the flowers; the latter circumstance is indeed the *essential character* of the class. In some cases, plants with five stamens, have their anthers united, but having no resemblance to others in the class Syngenesia, they are retained in the fifth class: the Violet and Impatiens are examples of this irregularity. This is an instance in which the artificial arrangement, is made to bend to natural resemblances.

The general characters of the compound flowers have already been exhibited to you, in connexion with some of the most important and distinct natural families. The analysis of the Daisy, which was illustrated by a dissected plant, must have impressed upon your minds the peculiarities which distinguish this, from all other classes.

You will recollect that a compound flower is a collection of little flowers or florets, placed upon the same receptacle, and within one common calyx; add to this description the five stamens, with their anthers united, forming a little tube, and you have an idea of a syngenesious flower.

The Orders of the class syngenesia are distinguished by different circumstances than are noticed in any other class; they are founded on the situation of the several kinds of florets. We will, however, before explaining the orders, remind you of the distinction made in these florets.

1. *Perfect*, such as have both stamens and pistils.
2. *Barren*, or *staminate*, having only stamens.
3. *Fertile*, or *pistillate*, having only pistils.
4. *Neutral*, destitute of either stamens or pistils.

They are also distinguished into *ligulate*, having a flat, strap-shaped corolla, and *tubular*, having a tubular corolla.

The five orders in this class, depend on the various situations of these different kinds of florets.

ÆQUALIS.

The *First Order* contains those compound flowers which have all the florets perfect; this order is divided into sections.

1st. Containing such as have *ligulate* florets; as the Dandelion, Lettuce, and Vegetable-oyster.

2d. Florets *tubulous*, with flowers in a head; as the Thistle, and False Saffron, (*Carthamus.*)

3d. Florets *tubulous*, without rays; as, Bone-set, or Thorough-wort, (*Eupatorium.*)

You will find no difficulty in procuring for analysis, either Dandelions or Thistles; the Bone-set is also abundant, therefore, for farther investigation of this order we will refer you to the plants themselves, aided by the description of genera provided to assist you in analyzing plants.

SUPERFLUA.

The *Second Order* presents us with such compound flowers as have the florets of the disk *perfect*, and those of the ray only *pistillate*, each pistil producing a perfect seed. The term *superfluous* is used, because the pistils in the ray, being unaccompanied with stamens, are said to be unnecessary or superfluous. This order is divided into two sections.

1st. Flowers *without rays*, or the ray florets indistinct; here we find the Tansey, and the Life-everlasting; of the latter there are many species.

The ARTEMISIA, a genus which includes the Wormwood and Southern-wood, both exotics, has but few native species. The name Artemisia is often improperly given to an ornamental plant, which belongs to the genus Chrysanthemum. "The genus Artemisia, was named in honour of Artemis, the wife of *Mausolus*, whose monument was one of the wonders of the world, (hence our word Mausoleum.) Pliny observes that women have had, also, the glory of giving names to plants."*

The 2d section of the order superflua, includes such flowers as have flat or ligulate petals, arranged around the middle or disk of the flower, these are called rays. The receptacles in this section are naked, that is, the top of the stem is found, on removing the different parts of the blossom, to be smooth, without any hairs or down, such as you may see on the Dandelion after the petals have fallen off. We here find the Star-flower, (ASTER,) a genus in which 120 species have already been discovered, more than 60 of which are natives of the United States. These are not often seen in blossom until June and July; they appear in flower until the approach of winter. Many of these flowers are highly beautiful; the different species present a great variety of rich and delicate colouring, from the dark blue, purple, and red, to a pale blue, a light violet and pink, and in many cases, a pure white. In some, the yellow prevails, sometimes they are variegated, and often, the disk and ray are of different colours. After having once become familiar with the Aster genus, you will seldom fail to distinguish it; but it is often difficult to determine the species. If you meet with obstacles in this, you are not to consider your time as lost; every comparison, and mental research strengthens the mind, and the greater difficulties you overcome, the greater will be the advantage, in thus accustoming yourselves to nice comparisons, and close investigations.

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* Thornton's British Flora.

The Golden rod, (SOLIDAGO,) is a numerous genus; the different species are mostly yellow; in one section of these plants the flowers are arranged in one sided racemes, in another they form small and irregular clusters. This genus will afford you the same opportunity of strengthening your mental faculties by overcoming difficulties; for its numerous species are in most cases so faintly distinguished, as to require some patience and application to trace out the specific differences.

The genus CHRYSANTHEMUM contains the common Daisy, sometimes called Ox-eye; it also includes many splendid foreign plants, mostly of Chinese origin. The Garden daisy, (Bellis,) is the flower which you were taught to analyze under the head of compound flowers.

FRUSTRANEA.

The *Third Order* has the disk florets perfect; those of the ray are neutral, having neither stamens nor styles, though an imperfect seed is sometimes seen at the base of the florets; the name *Frustranea* alludes to *this imperfect seed.* We find here the SUN-*flower*, (HELIANTHUS); this is a very good plant to examine, as the organs are large, and develope very clearly the peculiar character of the class Syngenesia.

In this order is the CENTAUREA *benedicta*, or Blessed thistle, a native of Spain, which received its name on account of some extraordinary virtues which it was thought to possess, such as being a remedy for the plague with which warm countries are often afflicted; at present this plant is not much valued.

NECESSARIA.

The *Fourth Order* includes plants in which the rays only are fertile or pistillate, and the disk florets are barren or staminate. We find here the Marygold, (CALENDULA.)

SEGREGATA.

The *Fifth Order* contains a few genera, with each floret having a calyx proper to itself, besides a common calyx including the whole of the florets which make up the flower; this may be called a doubly compound flower. The only plant of this order yet discovered in the United States is the Elephant's-foot, (ELEPHANTOPUS,) a low, hairy leaved plant, with purple, ligulate florets.

We have now completed a survey of the orders of the class Syngenesia; the plants which it contains are almost wholly referred to the natural order Compositæ or compound flowers; by Jussieu, they are subdivided into three orders.

DIVISION OF COMPOUND FLOWERS BY JUSSIEU.

1st, with florets all ligulate and perfect, leaves alternate, having milky juice, corollas mostly yellow; this includes the Dandelion and Lettuce.

2d order ~~includes all compound flowers~~ with tubular corollas, with receptacles fleshy and chaffy, egret stiff and bristly, leaves often with harsh prickles, flowers in a head; this includes the Thistle, Burdock, and False saffron.

3d order includes such compound flowers as have their inflorescence clustered in a corymb; as the Life-everlasting, Bone-set, and Aster.

The plants of the class Syngenesia, are in general easily recognized at the first glance; there is something about them besides their compound character which distinguishes them from all other plants. One botanist observes, that they have a kind of "weed-like appearance; notwithstanding the beauty of their colouring, the stems and leaves are often rough, and they seem to have been less completely reclaimed from their savage state, than most other plants, with the exception of the Cryptogamous class."*

Not many of the plants of this class are poisonous; it is remarked that milky plants are generally so, but those of this class are exceptions. The Lettuce however, contains a narcotic principle, and opium may be made from it. The Dandelion, the Eupatorium, the Chamomile, and Wormwood, with many other plants of this class are valued for medicinal properties.

* W. B. C. Barton.

The Syngensious plants are particularly abundant in our own country, and you will never find difficulty in procuring specimens.

If you commence botanical studies with the flowers of spring, nature gradually presents you with those that will be more difficult to investigate. This class, it has been before remarked, are chiefly in blossom in the latter part of the season. Being previously prepared by a knowledge of the general principles of classification, and observation of plants, you will no doubt derive pleasure from the study of the class Syngenesia; though were you to commence a course of botany with these plants, you would feel as if thrown amidst a chaos of facts, without any clue to their classification.

LECTURE XXXIII.

CLASS XVIII—GYNANDRIA.

We shall now examine a class, in which an entirely new circumstance from any yet considered, is regarded as forming its essential character. This circumstance is the situation of the stamens upon the pistil, or the stamens appearing to grow out of that organ. In some cases the stamens appear to proceed from the germ, in others, from the style. There is sometimes difficulty in deciding as to the number of stamens, for they are not here, as in the other classes, distinct organs, but in some cases mere collections of glutinous pollen.

The organs in this class, as in Monadelphia and Diadelphia, depend on the number of stamens, or of those singular collections of pollen which are called stamens. The Orchis plants form an important part of the class Gynandria, most of these are perennial, and grow in moist and shady places, some of them are parasites adhering to the bark of trees by their fleshy fibrous roots. The roots are sometimes a pair of solid bulbs, in other cases they are oblong, fleshy substances, tapering towards the ends like the fingers of the hands. We find here the natural family ORCHIDEÆ, so called from the genus Orchis; a name derived from a Greek word, signifying an Olive-berry, on account of the root being round like that fruit. The Orchis family, is not, however, confined to this one genus, but includes the ARETHUSA and several other genera. The distinguishing characters of this natural family, are a corolla above the germ, 5 petals, 3 external and 2 internal. There is also in each corolla a petal-like organ, called the lip, which varies in form and direction, anthers always 1 or 2, and from 1 to 4 celled, sessile or sitting upon the side or apex of the style; the pollen is easily removed from the cells in glutinous masses; the styles are simple, with viscous stigmas of various forms and positions. The capsules are 1 celled, 3 valved, 3 keeled; seeds are numerous, and dust-like, clasping the stem like the leaves of grasses. The stems or scapes are simple, undivided, and the flowers are arranged in spikes or racemes.

MONANDRIA.

The 1st Order of the 18th class contains such plants as have but one stamen, or two masses of glutinous pollen, equal to one stamen; this order is divided into sections, which relate to the manner in which the anther is attached to the style; as, whether it is easily separated, whether the anther grows upon the top of the stigma, and to the shape of the masses of pollen which are called the anther.

The Orchis genus, which is found in this order, has a nectary in the shape of a horn; its corolla is somewhat ringent, the upper petal vaulted, the lip is spreading, the 2 masses of pollen are concealed at the sides, by little sacs, or hooded hollows of the stigma.

DIANDRIA.

The 2d order contains the Ladies' slipper, (CYPRIPEDIUM,) the nectary or lip, is large, inflated, and fancied to resemble a slipper. We have several species of this curious plant, some of them are yellow, some white, and others purple.

PENTANDRIA.

The 5th order contains the Milk-Weed, (ASCLEPIAS,) which by some, has been placed in the fifth class, on the supposition that the stamens did not proceed from the pistil. In order to assist you to understand these flowers, we will present you with a very plain, and simple description, borrowed from a manuscript belonging to an American botanist,* who has devoted many years in attention to scientific pursuits, and has particularly examined into the character of the plants we are now considering. He says, "I select the Milk-Weed for exercising you in the Grammar of Fructification, because it will lead you into a very nice investigation of that kind of flower whose anthers produce glutinous pollen; and I now apprize you, that the stamens are generally obscure, and difficult to ascertain correctly, in such cases, particularly in the flowers of the Orchis tribe.

"Take one of those heads of flowers from the Milk-Weed, (ASCLEPIAS,) which are so common in the months of June and July, you will perceive that each flower grows upon a little stalk, and that all these stalks proceed from the same centre, like the braces of an umbrella; which answers to the definition given of an umbel inflorescence.

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* Professor Eaton.

"The most conspicuous parts of a single flower, are five upright substances, and five petals reflexed and lying down close to the stem; lift up those petals, and you will find a calyx consisting of five small narrow leaves.

"You will now have ascertained that the inflorescence is an umbel, that the calyx consists of five leaves, and the corolla of five reflexed petals.

"As the five upright substances, with a little horn in the centre of each, have not the appearance of stamens, although they are next in course to the petals, you may at first be at a loss what to call them; but I will here give you Linnæus' name, for every thing, whether inside or outside of the corolla, if it be neither calyx, stamen, nor pistil, of whatever form and size it may be; he having found, that such parts generally secrete a sweet liquid, calls them all by the general name Nectaries; such as the shoe part of a Ladies' slipper, the spur of the Nasturtion, &c. Now pull off all the nectaries, and examine the part which they encircled. You will observe five shelly projections between where the nectaries stood, between these are seeds lying very close, which you must peel off carefully with a sharp pointed knife, so as not to disturb what is under them. You will probably find some difficulty in effecting this at the first trial, but you cannot proceed in your examination until it be accomplished.

"Next, examine what is left with your magnifying glass, though you may see the parts without a glass; you will discover a lobe hanging down from each side of the five shelly projections, resembling bees' wax in appearance; these are the anthers, with glutinous pollen; as the two lobes hang to the branches of a single stamen, though very unlike stamens in other cases, they are properly the double anther of a single stamen. The thick substance from which the stamens proceed, is the stigma, consequently, the Milk-Weed is placed in this class, GYNANDRIA; the *orders* in this class are distinguished like the preceding *classes*, consequently, the five stamens place it in the order PENTANDRIA. The large, thick stigma has the appearance of a germ or pericarp; but if you pull off the stigma, you will discover two pericarps under it, of a different structure from that of the stigma; perhaps you will never meet with a stigma in any other flower, so large in proportion to its other parts as in the Milk-Weed. The anthers are pressed close to the side of the stigma by the valves or scales, and the glutinous pollen probably is absorbed by it; by which means the seed is fertilized, as in cases where the pollen is a dry powder. The manner in which either kind of pollen operates upon the stigma, is totally inexplicable; we know nothing more of the subject, than that no seed is ever perfected without it, in any species of vegetables."

No farther remarks on the character of this plant could be of use, after the clear and plain description just given; you will have no difficulty in procuring specimens of this plant for analysis, a variety of species are in flower in June and July.

The Apocynum, or Dogsbane, with some other genera, which were formerly placed in the 5th class, are now classed here.

HEXANDRIA.

The 6th order contains the Virginia Snake-root, (ARISTOLOCHIA *serpentaria*,) a perennial plant, with brown fibrous roots; it is found in shady woods, from New England to Florida; the root is highly valued in medicine, it possesses an aromatic smell, somewhat similar to spruce. It is said to have been found, by a chemical analysis, to contain, "pure camphor, a resin, a bitter extractive, and a strong essential oil."* It was used by the Indians as a remedy for the bite of a snake; from this circumstance, is derived its name. This plant has medical properties, unlike the POLYGALA *senega*, or Seneca Snake-root, and the mistaking one for the other, might, in critical stages of disease, be attended with fatal consequences.†

DECANDRIA.

In the 10th order, we find the Wild ginger, ASARUM; this is a native plant, so low, that its flowers are almost concealed in the ground; the roots are creeping and aromatic, having the taste and smell of the Snake-root, (Aristolochia.)

We have now finished a review of the class Gynandria; although many species of it are native to this country, you will not so readily procure specimens of this as of most other native plants. The Ladies' slipper, Milk weed, and Dogs bane, you can often find, but many of the plants of this family, particularly the Orchis tribe, opposing all attempts at cultivation, are to be found only in the depths of the forest, or places little frequented by man; we may, in this respect, compare them to the aboriginal inhabitants of America, who seem to prefer their own native wilds to the refinements and luxuries of a civilized life.

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* Rafinesque's Medical Flora.

† A Physician prescribed for an infant the Seneca Snake-root, (POLYGALA *senega*,) as a medicine in a case of extreme sickness; an ignorant apothecary sent in answer to the prescription, the Virginia Snake-root, (ARISTOLOCHIA *serpentaria*.) The physician had fortunately remained to inspect the medicine which he had ordered, and the mistake was seasonably discovered; this instance, shows the importance of botanical knowledge, particularly in those who attempt to deal in medicine; had the mother of the child understood botany, she might have discovered the mistake, had the physician not been present.

LECTURE XXXIV.

CLASS XIX—MONŒCIA, AND XX—DIŒCIA.

In all the classes hitherto examined, we have found perfect flowers, that is, those which presented the two important organs on which the artificial system is founded. In the first ten classes, we had only to count the stamens to determine the class, and the pistils to ascertain the order.

In the two next classes, we observed whether the stamens grew upon the calyx or the receptacle, and as before, counted the styles to ascertain the order.

In the two next classes, each having two orders, we were guided by the comparative length of the stamens, and certain appearances of the seeds, in one class, and of the seed vessel in the other.

We next found two classes, where connexion of stamens by means of filaments, was the essential character, and whose orders depended upon the number of stamens.

In the great class of compound flowers, we regarded chiefly the circumstance of united anthers; the orders being founded upon certain circumstances relative to the little flowers, (florets,) which compose the whole flower.

The class which was the subject of our last lecture, presented us with the stamens in a new situation; viz. growing out from the pistil, the orders were reckoned according to the number of these strange looking stamens, each one of which in general is formed of two masses of glutinous pollen.

Our present inquiry is to be directed to two classes, in which the flowers are imperfect, or both stamen and pistil are not found in the same individual flower. The stamens are infertile and disappear without any fruit, the pistils contain the germ, and produce fruit when fertilized by the pollen.

CLASS MONŒCIA.

The class Monœcia, (one house,) contains plants, where, upon the same root, we find some flowers containing only stamens, others only with pistils. The orders in this class are determined by the number of styles or pistils.

MONANDRIA.

In the first order is the Bread-fruit-tree, (Atrocarpus,) which grows to the height of forty feet; having fruit of an enormous size, hanging from its boughs like apples; it is a native of the East Indies, much valued for food.

TRIANDRIA.

In the 3d order we find a very common plant, called Cattail, (TYPHA,) this grows in swampy meadows, and in stagnant waters, often to the heighth of four or five feet. The long, brown and hard spikes which grow at the summit of the stem, (giving rise from its peculiar appearance to the name Cat-tail,) is the *catkin;* it contains in the upper part, the staminate flowers, having neither calyx nor corolla, the 3 stamens arising from a chaffy or hairy receptacle. The pistillate flowers forming the lower part of the spike, produce each a seed supported in a kind of bristle. This plant has sometimes been used for making beds, but is considered by physicians as unhealthy, on account of the properties inherent in its vegetable substance.

This genus however, contains some elegant foreign species; one of which AMARANTHUS *melancholicus*, has received the whimsical name of Love-lies-bleeding; probably from the circumstance of its long, spiral, red flower stalks, bending over, often reclining upon the ground.

Another species called Prince's Feather, is always erect. The Amaranth, whether from its being a good word to fall in with poetical measure, or from some fancied intrinsic beauty, has ever been a favourite with poets. Milton, when speaking of the multitude of angels assembled before the Deity, says,

> ——————"To the ground,
> With solemn admiration, down they cast
> Their crowns, inwove with Amaranth and gold;
> Immortal Amaranth, a flower which once
> In Paradise, fast by the tree of life,
> Began to bloom, but soon for man's offence,
> To Heaven removed.
> With flow'rs that never fade, the spirits elect
> Bind their resplendent locks, enwreathed with beams."

In Portugal, and other warm countries, the Globe Amaranth is said to be used for adorning the churches in winter.

The Sedge or CAREX, is a numerous genus, nearly 100 species have been discovered in North America. It is a grass-like plant, but separated from the family of grasses, which are mostly of the 3d class, on account of the monœcious character of its flowers. The study of this genus alone, might occupy years; a treaties upon it, called Caricography,* has been lately published by an American botanist.†

The Indian corn, (ZEA *mays*,) is found in this order. The top or panicle, consists of staminate flowers only, and of course never produces corn; the pistillate flowers grow in a spike, enclosed in a husk; each pistil produces a seed called corn, the pistils are very long, forming what is called silk.

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* From Carix, *caricis*.

† Professor Dewey

TETRANDRIA.

The 4th order contains the Mulberry tree, (Morus,) of the same natural order as the nettle, having leaves rough, and flowers destitute of beauty.

PENTANDRIA.

The 5th order contains the genus Amaranthus, which is a very common weed, seeming to have some analogy to the pig-weed; not only in natural properties, but in being dignified with a name which forms a somewhat ludicrous contrast with its mean appearance.

POLYANDRIA.

The 12th order contains the genus Calla, of which we have some native species; it includes the elegant exotic, Calla *ethiopia*, or Egyptian Lily. In this genus, the flowers having neither calyx nor corolla, grow upon that kind of receptacle which is called a spadix; the staminate and pistillate flowers are intermixed, the anthers have no filaments, but are sessile or fixed upon the receptacle; the berries are one celled, many seeded, and crowned with a short style. This spadix thus covered with the fructification, stands erect, surrounded by a spreading, ovate spatha; this, in the Egyptian Lily is of a pure white, presenting a very showy appearance. Without attention to the structure of the plant, you would probably suppose the spatha to be the corolla; the leaves are sagittate or arrow form.

The Wild Turnip or Indian turnip, (Arum,) belongs to the same natural family as the Calla; the spatha in the Arum is sometimes green, streaked with brown, and dark purple, in some species it is inflected or bent inwards, covering the spadix.

The Arrow Head, (Sagittaria,) is unlike most of the Monœcious plants in its general appearance, it has a three leaved calyx and 3 white petals, not unlike the Spider's-wort in the form of its flowers. Many species of this very delicate looking plant in autumn may be found in ditches and stagnant waters.

We find in this order many of the most important forest trees, the Oak, Beech, Walnut, Chesnut, Butternut, and Birch. These trees all belong to one natural family, distinguished for bearing their staminate flowers in nodding aments, which are furnished with scales, on which the stamens are inserted; the pistillate flowers have scales or calyxes. The fruit is often hard, the stems are woody, and the roots are perennial.

MONADELPHIA.

The 15th order, in which the *filaments* are united in a column, presents us with the Cucumber tribe, (*Cucurbitaceæ;*) these include not only the proper (Cucumis,) which is an exotic, but some native genera of similar plants; we find here the Gourd, Squash, Watermelon, and Pumpkin. These plants have mostly a yellow, 5 cleft corolla, calyx 5 parted, 3 filaments united into a tube, a large berry-like fruit, called a Pepo; this, in the Melon, is ribbed, and in the Cucumber uneven and warty. We find in the same artificial order a very different family of plants, called *Coniferous*, or cone bearing plants; these have the staminate flowers in aments, each furnished with a scale or perianth supporting the stamens; the pistillate flowers are in strobilums, each furnished with a hard scale. The stems are woody, the leaves ever green, and the juice resinous. To this natural family belong the Pine and Cypress.

The character of trees may be studied to advantage at four different seasons: in winter, when the forms of the ramification can be seen in the naked boughs, and the leaf and flower buds examined in their inert state; in spring, when in blossom; in summer, when the foliage is in perfection; and in autumn, when, during the first stages of decay, the mellowness and variety of tints afford beautiful subjects for the pencil of the painter, and the investigation of those who love the study of nature under all her forms.

CLASS DIŒCIA.

The class Diœcia, (two houses,) has staminate and pistillate flowers on separate plants. The distinction with regard to the orders, as in the preceding class, is derived from the number of stamens.

There are no plants of the first order.

DIANDRIA.

The 2*d Order* contains the Willow, (Salix,) which has long and slender aments, both of staminate and pistillate flowers, the two kinds being on separate trees.

The order Triandria contains the Fig, (Ficus,) remarkable for containing the flower within the fruit, which is botanically considered as a juicy receptacle, within which are concealed the minute flowers and seeds. The Fig is peculiar to warm countries.

Tetrandria contains a parasite plant, the *Misseltoe*, but one species is a native of this country; the Druids considered this plant as sacred to the sylvan deities. Tradition relates, that where Druidism prevailed, the houses were decked with this plant, that the sylvan spirits might repair to them.

The following lines are from the pen of an American lady, no less distinguished for piety and private worth, than for poetical talents.

"THE MISELTOE AT THE TOMB OF WASHINGTON.

Dark plant of Superstition's shade,
Why dost thou lift thy cheerless eye,
Where reeks no Druid's purple blade,
To stain fair Freedom's chosen glade,
And dim her sun-bright sky?

Sacred to orgies blind and base,
Where human blood was sternly spilt,
How dar'st thou seek this holy place?
Rude parasite! whose foul embrace
Has wreath'd the murderer's hilt.

Where Mona's ancient foliage wept,
Or drear Stonehenge appall'd the gloom,
Thy earthless root had fitter crept,
Thy mystic garland better slept,
Than near a christian's tomb.

What though in tuneful Maro's lore,
To Troy's sad chief thine aid was lent,
Who dauntless, trod the infernal shore,
Where proud and frowning shades of yore,
Their date of anguish spent.

Yet we, to Pluto's dreary coast,
Passport to ask of thee, disdain;—
We seek *our hero* mid the host,
Where wails no grim or guilty ghost,
On heaven's unclouded plain.

See!—watchful o'er his honour'd clay
A nation sheds the filial tear,
And pilgrims kneel, and patriots pray,
And plants of glory drink the day;
Why should'st *thou* linger here?

In war, the laurel wove his crest,
The olive deck'd his sylvan dome,
The mournful cypress marks his rest,
Rude Miseltoe!—the Druid's guest,
Hence!—find some fitter home."*

The order **Pentandria** of the class which we are now considering, contains the Hemp, Hop, and Prickly-ash tree.

Hexandria, contains the Honey-locust and Green briar.

Octandria, has the Poplar, (**Populus**,) similar in natural character to the Willow. Several intermediate orders occur before we arrive at the 15th order, **Monadelphia**; here we find the Red cedar and the Yew, which belong to the cone bearing family, with the Pine and Cypress.

---

* Mrs. Sigourney.

We have now completed our remarks upon two classes which have imperfect flowers. Our review of these has been brief, when compared to the many interesting facts which presented themselves in association, with the various important plants which we have passed in rapid succession; but this very mass of interesting matter has compelled us to dwell less upon particular facts. We have now but one more class to investigate, in order to have completed our view of the Linnæan system.

LECTURE XXXV.

CLASS XXI—CRYPTOGAMIA.

The twenty preceding classes include the Phenogamous plants; the one we are now to consider is termed Cryptogamous,* a term which signifies that the stamens and pistils are concealed or invisible to the naked eye. As we enter upon this last of the Linnæan classes, we shall find all our former principles of arrangement to fail us, and that we are, it might almost seem, entered upon a new science. The class Cryptogamia includes all plants which do not find a place in some of the other classes. Some writer has said, that Linnæus having arranged the plants which would admit of classification, took the remainder and cast them all into a heap together, which he called Cryptogamous; he did not, however, rest satisfied in thus throwing together the refuse of the vegetable world; but subdivided this miscellaneous collection into orders, or we might more properly say, that he gave names to those divisions already marked out by nature.

Of these orders, which are natural families brought together on account of general resemblances and analogies, without reference to any one principle, there are six.

FILICES, OR FERNS.

The 1*st order* contains the Ferns; their plume-like leaves are called *fronds.* The fruit, mostly disposed in dots or lines, grows on the back, summit, or near the base of the leaf or *frond.* Some of the ferns bear their fruit in a peculiar appendage, as a spike or protuberance in the axils, or at the base of the leaves; no appearance of flowers is ever presented. When the brown or white dust-like spots are examined with a microscope, they are found to consist of clusters of very small capsules, at first entire, but afterwards bursting elastically and irregularly. The seed is fine as the finest powder, and so light as to be wafted by the air to any distance or height; we thus often see ferns growing high on the trunks of trees, or on the summits of old buildings. Some ferns grow to a great height in southern latitudes, almost like trees. At the southern extremity of Van Dieman's Land, a species has been found whose trunks attained to the height of twelve or sixteen feet.

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* Some French botanists consider that there are plants in reality destitute of stamens and pistils; these they term *Agamous.*

One species in our country, ONOCLEA *sensibilis*, called the Sensitive Fern, is said to wither on being touched by the human hand, though the touch of other substances does not produce any similar appearances.

MUSCI, OR MOSSES.

The 2d order contains the Mosses, which are little herbs with distinct leaves, and often a distinct stem; their conical, membranous corolla is called a *calyptra* or veil, its summit being the stigma; this veil clothes the capsules, which, before the seed ripens, is elevated on a fruit stalk. The capsule is of one cell, and one valve, opening by a vertical lid; the seeds are very numerous and minute. In some genera the veil is wanting, this serves as a distinction in the order. The barren flower of mosses consists of a number of nearly cylindrical, almost sessile anthers, the fertile flowers of one pistil, seldom more, accompanied by several barren pistils. Both stamens and pistils are intermixed with numerous succulent threads. The mosses are generally perennial and evergreen, and capable of growing in colder climates than most other vegetables. In Spitzbergen, the rocks which rise from the surrounding ice, are thickly clothed with moss. A botanist who travelled in Greenland, counted more than twenty different species without rising from a rock where he was seated. The parts of the mosses which have been described are not seen without the assistance of a good microscope. It is not to be expected that young botanists will be fond of this department of the science, although those who become acquainted with it, discover much enthusiasm in its pursuit. The following interesting remarks on Cryptogamous plants are taken from an English writer.

"Mosses and Ferns, by the inconsiderate mind, are deemed an useless or insignificant part of the creation. That they are not, is evident from this, that he who made them has formed nothing in vain, but on the contrary has pronounced all his creation to be *good*. Many of their uses we know; that they have many more which we know not, is unquestionable, since there is probably no one thing in the universe, of which we can dare to assert, that we know all its uses. Thus much we are certain of with respect to mosses, that as they flourish most in winter, and at that time cover the ground with a beautiful green carpet, in many places which would otherwise be naked, and when little verdure is elsewhere to be seen; so at the same time they shelter and preserve the seeds, roots, germs and embryo plants of many vegetables, which would otherwise perish. They furnish materials for birds to build their nests with, they afford a warm winter's retreat for some quadrupeds, such as bears, dormice and the like, and for numberless insects which are the food of birds and fishes, and these again the food or delight of men. Many of them grow on rocks and barren places, and by rotting away, afford the first principles of vegetation to other plants, which, never else could have taken root there. Others grow in bogs and marshes, and by continual increase and decay, fill up and convert them either into fertile pastures or into peat bogs, the source of inexhaustible fuel to the polar regions.

"They are applicable also to many domestic purposes. The *Lycopodiums* are some of them, used in dying of yarn, and in medicine; the *Sphagnum*, (Peat Moss,) and *Polytrichum* furnish convenient beds for the Laplanders, and the *Hypnums* are used in the tiling of houses, stopping crevices in walls, packing up of brittle wares, and the roots of plants, for distant conveyance.

"To which may be added, that all in general, contribute entertainment and agreeable instruction to the contemplative mind of the naturalist, at a season when few other plants offer themselves to his view.

"The Fungi have been suspected by some to be, like sponges and corals, the habitations of some unknown living beings, and being alkaline, have been classed in the animal kingdom; but they are known to produce seeds, from which perfect plants have been raised; and the celebrated Hedwig by great dexterity of dissection, and by using microscopes of very highly magnifying powers, assures us, that he has discovered both stamens and pistils not only in this order of plants, but in the other orders of the Cryptogamous family."*

HEPATICÆ, OR LIVERWORTS.

The 3d order contains the Liverworts, which are more succulent or juicy than the mosses; they have four valved capsules, which circumstance distinguishes them from the mosses. Their name, Hepaticæ, signifies liver; but it is not yet known whether they received that name on account of some supposed virtue in curing diseases of the liver, or whether it was because they were thought to resemble the lobes or divisions of the liver.

ALGÆ, OR SEA WEEDS.

The 4th Order includes the Sea weeds and Frog spittle; these have leathery fronds, with fine, dust-like seed, enclosed in inflated portions of the frond. They are mostly aquatics, generally green or reddish. One genus of this family is the *Fucus*, in the plural *Fuci;* these plants with some others of the order, swim on the waters of the ocean.

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* Thornton's Botany.

LICHENES.

The 5th order contains the LICHENS; these are various in texture, form and colour; they are leathery, woody, leaf-like, white, yellow, green and black. When wet, they often appear like green herbage; some appear on stones or old fences and buildings, others with strong, green filaments, are suspended from branches of trees and improperly called mosses.

FUNGI, OR MUSHROOMS.

The 6th Order contains the *Mushrooms*; these never exhibit any appearance of green herbage, they are generally corky, fleshy, or mould-like, varying much in form and colour. The fruit of some is external, of others internal. They are often of very quick growth and short duration, hence the expression which is often ironically made a "character of Mushroom growth," when a person has suddenly acquired consequence. The genus *Agaricus*, which contains the common eatable Mushroom, has a convex, scaly, white head, which is supported on a stalk or pillar, and the gills of a flesh coloured red, turning dark by exposure to the air, and at length nearly black. "If the Mushroom be left for a time on a plate of glass a powder will be found deposited; this is the seed or organic germ. That these are capable of germination is evident to cultivators, who now form Mushroom beds, by strewing the decayed plants on prepared beds of manure."*

A very delicious Mushroom, of the genus Agaricus, is common in Italy, and much valued for food; it is of a fine red and orange colour; the ancient Romans esteemed it as a great luxury. The genus *Boletus* contains the *Touchwood*, or *Spunk*, which is sometimes used as tinder. The LYCOPERDON *tuber*, contains the Puff-ball.

It is not to be expected that you will go into a minute investigation of the Cryptogamous plants, they are probably the least understood of all the visible works of nature. Some philosophers have asserted that some of this race do not belong to the vegetable, but to the animal kingdom; they have discovered insects in the Mushrooms, and they say that like the sponge, and the corals, these should be classed among animal productions. Few however, at present entertain this belief; and the fact of their having been raised from seed sprinkled on the earth, seems to prove them to be of vegetable growth. A curious field of inquiry presents itself in the consideration of the difference between animal and vegetable life. This we shall hereafter partially examine, not, however, expecting to decide upon subjects which lie hidden from the researches of finite beings; but the rather to show you, that the "ways of the Almighty are unsearchable, and past finding out!"

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* Nuttall.

After what has been remarked upon the difficulty of analyzing the plants belonging to the Cryptogamous class, you will not need to be discouraged, should you be baffled in your attempts to investigate them. It is well for mankind, that there are philosophers, whom the enthusiasm of scientific pursuits will lead to spend years, even a whole life, in searching into the fructification of a moss or mushroom; or in examining into the natural history of an ant or a spider;* as thus, discoveries are continually brought forward, which add to the general stock of knowledge; this is a kind of martyrdom in the general cause of science to which but few seem called, by the powerful impulses of their own minds. Females in particular, are not expected to enter into the recesses of the temple of science; it is but of late, that they have been encouraged to approach even to its portals, and to dare to glance upon the mysteries within.

We have now completed our general view of the vegetable world, according to the order in which the different tribes of plants have presented themselves; as we followed in the train of Classification, we have endeavoured to notice the most conspicuous, and to trace their natural relations, as well as their artificial arrangement.

In many cases, departing from the plan of general remarks, we have traced the natural history of some one genus, believing this method more likely to make a permanent impression, than merely general views. When we read the history of nations, we often feel less interested in the fate of a whole people, than in that of some prominent individual; if the imagination is presented with general ideas only, it has no opportunity of fixing itself upon any single circumstance in order to create a lively picture in the mind. The same remark may apply to natural history. When you now look back upon the view just taken of the vegetable world, and examine what impressions are most lively in your minds, you will probably find them to be respecting some particularities of individual plants. Of this tendency of the mind we should avail ourselves, by connecting these particular impressions with facts which lead us to general principles. Very narrow indeed, would be our mental vision, were it to be confined to single unconnected observations, laid up indiscriminately in the storehouse of thought; but our minds, not by our own will, but by a faculty received directly from our Creator, instinctively generalize and arrange their mass of single observations; and we almost, without an effort, perform that operation in the world of thought within us, which the great Linnæus effected in the vegetable kingdom.

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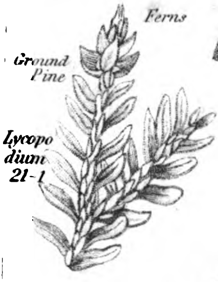
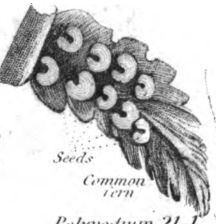
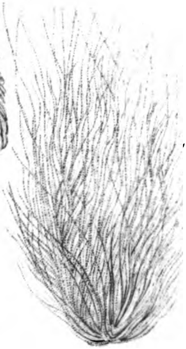
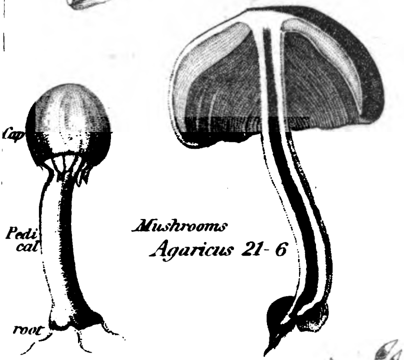
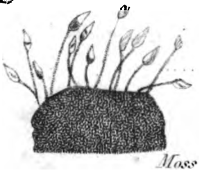
* I have been gravely assured by a naturalist of distinction, that the study of *spiders*, is one of the most *elegant* and *delightful* of all pursuits.

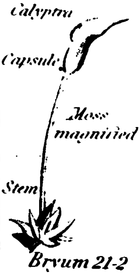


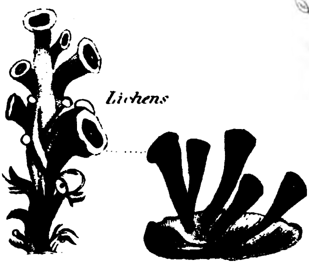




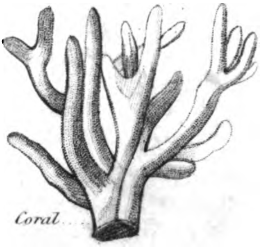


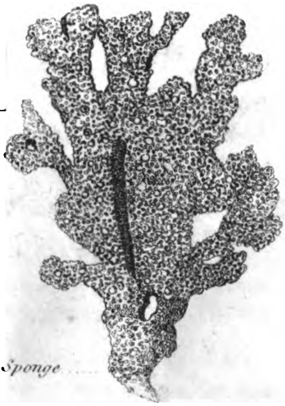






Commencement of Animal life





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PART IV.

LECTURE XXXVI.

THE FLOWERING SEASON OF PLANTS.

Vernal and Summer Flowers.

From the first appearance of vegetation in the spring, until the commencement of winter, nature presents an ever varying scene in the vegetable world. The phenomenon of the flowering of plants, is in many respects, similar to that of the putting forth of leaves; in both, the same causes either hasten or retard this period. The putting forth of leaves, and the blossoming of flowers, differ however in one circumstance; the former begins usually by the upper leaf buds, but the latter by the flower buds; stipes, panicles, and thyrses begin to blossom gradually from the base to the summit. Cymes and umbels blossom from the outside to the centre. This difference has been attributed to the leaf buds having a greater force to draw up the sap to the extremity, while in the flowers it rises by slow degrees.

In plants of the north, transported to the south, the period of the putting forth of leaves and blossoming is hastened; in those of the south carried to the north it is retarded. Even in their native soil, this period varies in some degree in different seasons. With greater warmth of temperature, we have an earlier appearance of vegetation; yet in general, this variation is so slight, that botanists are able by observation, to fix with a sufficient degree of accuracy, the time of the flowering of plants in particular latitudes and climates.

The progress of vegetation varies little from latitude 40 to 43 degrees north; therefore the remarks that we make on this subject, may apply to the region of country as far south as the mouth of the Hudson river, to the Mohawk north, and to the greater part of the New England States east of the Hudson. In Ohio, and the western part of New-York, the climate, on account of the influence of the lakes, and the cold eastern winds from the Atlantic being broken by ranges of mountains, is milder in the same latitude, and vegetation of course is somewhat earlier than in New England.

In some cases, a plant puts forth leaves and blossoms at the same time; but usually, the leaves appear before the flowers.

We see little appearance of vegetable life as early as March; sometimes snow covers the ground nearly or quite through the month, but if we examine the trees and shrubs, even then, we shall see the leaf buds swelling, and ready to expand with the first vivifiying influences of heat.

FLOWERS OF APRIL.

In April, the leaves of the trees and shrubs begin to put forth, and a few flowers show themselves, amid the damp chilly atmosphere with which they are surrounded; among the most interesting of these harbingers of spring is the Hepatica *triloba*, or Liver-leaf, sometimes improperly called *Anemone;* a lowly, modest flower, of a pale blue colour, with beautifully formed three-lobed leaves.

The Wood anemone, (Anemone *nemorosa*,*) is now found in shady woods and damp pastures.

Among the blossoms now to be seen are most species of the Poplar, a plant, in the class *Monœcia*, having stamens and pistils on separate plants. The Salix, or Willow, is of the same class, which includes the mournful Weeping-willow, or Salix *tristis*, sometimes called Salix Babylonica, in allusion to a beautiful passage in the Psalms, which represents the children of Israel when carried into captivity, as sitting down by the waters of Babylon to weep, and hanging their harps on "Willow trees that withered there."

Among the forest trees now in blossom, are the Maple and the Elm; in the meadows and moist grounds, the Yellow cowslip, (Caltha *palustris*,) a fine example of the class Polyandria; and the Adder's tongue, (Erythronium *dens-canis*,) with a beautiful liliaceous flower, which affords a good example of the class Hexandria.

In woods, and by the sides of brooks, is to be seen the Sanguinaria or Blood-root; which bears a white blossom, more elegant and ornamental for a garden, than many flowers which are brought from foreign countries, and affording from its root a highly valuable medicine.

The Claytonia, or as it is often called, Spring beauty, is also to be found at this season; the Dandelion too, you well know is found among the earliest flowers of spring. The Garden violet which is an exotic, appears also at this time; the Viola *rotundifolia*, or Yellow violet, with roundish leaves, lying close to the ground, is found in the fields. Besides these, are found several species of Carex, a coarse kind of Grass; the Trailing Arbutus, Epigæa *repens*, and the Trillium, which we remarked under the class Hexandria, as a flower exhibiting great uniformity in its divisions.

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* This little flower I have seen raising its head amid surrounding snows, on the banks of the Poesten kiln, a romantic little stream which flows into the Hudson, near Troy.

FLOWERS OF MAY.

In May, many species of the *Viola* appear; there is sometimes a difficulty in determining between these species; the distinctive marks seem often to be blended; we are in such cases obliged to place our plant under that species, to which in our own judgment, it seems to have most resemblance.

One of the most *interesting* flowers of this season, found in woods and meadows, is a species of Anemone, the Wind-flower, (*virginiana*,) a name, given as some say, because the flower expands only in windy weather; its petals are large and usually white, the stem grows to the height of two or three feet, and contains one terminal flower. Several species of the Anemone are in blossom about this time. The *nemorosa*, or Low Anemone, with a pale red, or white blossom, is often found among the first flowers of spring.

At this time, the *Xylosteum*, or Fly-honey-suckle, may be found by the side of brooks; a shrub with blossoms growing in pairs; also the Uvularia, a plant with a yellow blossom of the lily family; and the Strawberry, with its numerous stamens growing on the calyx; it has also many styles, each one bearing a seed.

The Aronia, or Shad-blossom, is an early flower, a species of which is not unfrequently found in April. It is a shrub, often growing upon the banks of brooks, with white petals, clustering together in the form of a raceme.

Many of the mosses are now in blossom; these, we trust, you have learned to consider as presenting much that is interesting, to those who understand their structure; but you will not be called on to examine the mosses in the commencement of your botanical studies, neither will they be likely to force themselves upon your notice. You no doubt were surprised to learn that they have flowers, and are considered as of any importance; but you must recollect they are the workmanship of His hand, who is no less wise in the formation of a moss, than in the creation of a world. You have learned, it is to be hoped, so much humility, as to see that all that God has made is important, and that our ignorance of the uses of natural productions, is not a proof of his want of wisdom, but of our blindness.

The Arum, or Wild-turnip, is now in blossom; it is a curious plant, with the stamens and pistils growing on a spadix, a club-shaped organ surrounded by a spatha; it is found in shady places. The root is valued in medicine. The Calla *palustris*, or Water Arum, which is placed in the same class, is now in bloom; this is of the same genus as the Egyptian lily.

The Aquilegia, or Wild Columbine, with its horned nectaries, is found hanging in rich clusters from the clefts of rocks.

FLOWERS OF JUNE.

The plants which are now in blossom are so numerous, that we can mention only a few of the most common, or most striking.

A well known shrub, the Elder, (**Sambucus**,) is now found along the sides of hedges, or on the margin of brooks, and in the meadows; the **Rubus**, or Raspberry, the **Ranunculus**, or Butter-cup, the **Cynoglossum**, or Hounds-tongue, and the **Trifolium**, or Clover. It is recorded in history, that when Saint Patrick went as a missionary, to preach the Gospel to the pagan Irish, "he illustrated the doctrine of the Trinity, by showing them a Trifolium, or Three-leaved-grass with one stalk; this, operating to their conviction, the Shamrock, which is a bundle of this grass, was ever afterwards worn upon this Saints anniversary, to commemorate this event."

In the meadows is seen at this time the **Geranium** *maculatum*, a showy flower, and almost the only American Geranium; in the woods, the splendid Ladies'-slipper, (**Cypripedium**,) and the Wild Mandrake, (**Podophyllum**,) a flower of curious appearance.

The genus **Convallaria**, of which the Solomon's-seal is an example, may now be found; it is usually white, of a bell-form corolla. The various species of **Vaccinium**, of which the Whortleberry is an example, are now in blossom; the woods are ornamented by the snowy white Cornus, or Dog-wood flowers.

In the early part of June, the foliage of the trees usually appears in perfection; among the earliest are the Willow, Poplar, and Alder; next are the Bass-wood, Horse-chesnut, the Oak, Beech, Ash, Walnut, and Mulberry, which are not all usually in full leaf before the middle of June. Their various appearances are beautifully described by Cowper:—

"No tree in all the grove but has its charms,
Though each its hue peculiar; paler some,
And of a wannish grey; the Willow such,
And Poplar, that with silver lines his leaf;
And Ash, far stretching his umbrageous arms;
Of deeper green the Elm; and deeper still,
Lord of the woods, the long surviving Oak.
Some glossy leaved and shining in the sun,
The Maple and the Beech of oily nuts
Prolific, and the Lime, at dewy eve
Diffusing odours: nor unnoted pass
The Sycamore, capricious in attire,
Now green, now tawny, and ere Autumn yet
Have changed the woods, in scarlet honours bright."

The flowers which have appeared, as we proceeded in noting the progress of the spring, may be called the vernal flowers. At the summer solstice, or as the sun arrives at the tropic of

Cancer, a new race of blossoms appear; as the Roses, Pinks, and Lilies, with many other exotics. The Iris is found in stagnant waters and in gardens. Among native plants we now find the **Asclepias**, or Milk-weed, affording a good example of the class Gynandria. The little Bell-flower, (**Campanula**,) may be seen nodding over the brows of the rocks.

The brilliant Laurel, (**Kalmia**,) is now in bloom, also the Mullein, affording a good illustration of the class Pentandria. The climbing Virgin's-bower, (**Clematis**,) hangs in graceful clusters of white flowers from the boughs of shrubs and trees. The curious Side-saddle-flower, (**Sarracenia**,) which was described under the class Polyandria, is now to be found in swamps and wet grounds.

More flowers are in blossom just before the summer solstice, than during any period of the year, until the blossoming of the autumnal plants. The hot breath of summer seems to wither the expanded flowers, the earlier ones fade away, and the late ones do not immediately come forward; it would seem as if the earth having poured forth for so long a time in rapid succession, innumerable treasures, now required a suspension of her efforts; but soon, with recovered energy, she begins to spread forth new beauties in great profusion and brilliancy.

LECTURE XXXVII.

Autumnal Flowers.—Evergreens.—Ancient Superstition respecting Plants.—Various Phenomena of Plants.

The autumnal flowers, are mostly in their appearance, unlike those which we find in the earlier part of the season. Few examples of the compound flowers occur, until the latter part of July and beginning of August; this is fortunate for students just commencing the analysis of plants; were they to find only the compound flowers at first, they would be discouraged in the commencement of the study; but nature seems kindly to lead them on step by step, reserving the more difficult plants until they have had an opportunity of becoming familiar with the easier classes.

There is little difficulty in learning to distinguish the different families of compound flowers; as an Aster from a Solidago, or a Helianthus. But some of these families contain many species; and the chief difficulty consists not in finding the genus, but in determining the species with accuracy. Indeed it is not to be concealed that there is in this part of botanical science some confusion among writers; and we should not be discouraged if we are not always able, in every respect, to bring our plant exactly under any species described.

Among the noble flowers which autumn presents, are the scarlet **Lobelia**, or Cardinal flower, the yellow **Gerardia**, (False Fox-glove,) and the noble Sun-flower, (Helianthus.) The modest **Linnæa** *borealis*, so named from the great founder of our present artificial system of Botany, is found in September; at this time the White Pond Lily, (**Nymphæa**,) one of the most splendid of American flowers, is seen whitening the surface of the lakes and ponds, sometimes alternating with the Yellow Water Lily, (**Nuphar**,) a flower of less striking elegance than the former, but perhaps not less curious in its form.

Another aquatic plant, which, although it blossoms in summer, continues in flower until late in the autumn, is the **Sagittaria**, or Arrow-head, with a three-leaved calyx, having white petals, staminate and pistillate flowers on the same root; it belongs to the class Monœcia.

The Eupatorium, or Thorough-wort which blossoms in autumn, has no external beauty to recommend it, but as a remedy in diseases, perhaps no plant is more useful. In remarking the few flowers which linger until the approach of winter, we see the hardy Dandelion, which, although one of the earliest, is also among the latest of the vegetable tribes. We see among the last blossoms of the season, some compound flowers which seem for a time to bear the autumnal blasts, but which gradually give way to the reign of winter, leaving the desolate fields and meadows to present but a gloomy contrast to their former verdant and glowing appearance.

Poetical view of the Succession of Flowers.

Having considered the successive appearance of Flowers, we will close the subject by a poetical view of the same changes, taken from an English writer.

"Fair rising from her icy couch,
  Wan herald of the floral year,
The *Snowdrop* marks the spring's approach,
  E're yet the *Primrose* groups appear,
Or peers the *Arum** from its spotted veil,
Or odorous *Violets* scent the cold, capricious gale.

Then, thickly strewn in woodland bowers,
  Anemonies their stars unfold;
Then spring the *Sorrel's* veined flowers,
  And rich in vegetable gold.
From calyx pale the freckled *Cowslip* born,
Receives in amber cups the fragrant dews of morn.

Lo! the green *Thorn* her silver buds,
  Expands to May's enlivening beam,
Hottonia† blushes on the floods;
  And where the slowly trickling stream,
Mid grass and spiry rushes stealing glides,
Her lovely fringed flowers, fair *Menyanthes*‡ hides.

* Wild Turnip. † Water Violet. ‡ Buckbean.

In the lone copse, or shadowy dale,
Wild clustered knots of *Harebells* blow,
And droops the *Lily* of the *Vale*.
O'er *Vinca's** matted leaves below,
The *Orchis* race with varied beauty charm,
And mock the exploring bee, or fly's aerial form.

Wound in the hedge-row's oaken boughs,
The *Woodbine's* tassels float in air,
And blushing, the uncultured *Rose*,
Hangs high her beauteous blossoms there;
Her fillets there the purple *Night-shade* weaves,
And the *Brionia* winds her pale and scolloped leaves.

To later summer's fragrant breath,
Clematis'† feathery garlands dance;
The hollow *Foxglove* nods beneath,
While the tall *Mullein's* yellow lance,
Dear to the greedy tribe of insects, towers,
And the weak *Galium*‡ weaves its myriad fairy flowers.

Sheltering the Coot's and Wild duck's nest,
And where the timid *Halcyon* hides,
The *Willow-herb* in crimson drest,
Waves with *Arundo* o'er the tides;
And there the bright *Nymphæa*‖ loves to lave,
Or spreads her golden orbs upon the dimpling wave.

And thou, by pain, and sorrow blest,
Papaver!§ that an opiate dew
Conceal'st beneath thy scarlet vest,
Contrasting with the *Cornflower* blue,
Autumnal months behold thy gauzy leaves,
Bend in the rustling gale, amid the tawny sheaves."

EVERGREENS.

During the season of winter in our climate, no flowers appear, except on such plants as are shielded from the inclemency of the weather; even the green house plants can scarcely be made to blossom.

The leaves of the trees, and the stems of all annual plants, are also decayed; some hardy evergreens yet retain their cheerful verdure. At Christmas, the Pine, Spruce, and the beautiful Running or Ground Pine, (LYCOPODIUM,) belonging to the family of Ferns, are found in perfection, ready to welcome the anniversary of our Saviour's birth.

The custom of decorating churches with evergreens, is of very ancient date. On this subject an English writer observes, "The evergreens, with which the churches are usually ornamented at Christmas, are a proper emblem of that time when as God says by the prophet Isaiah, 'I will plant in the wilderness the Cedar, and the Myrtle, and the Olive tree; I will set in the desert the Fir tree and Pine tree, and the Box tree toge-

* Periwinkle. † Virgin's Bower. ‡ Bedstraw.
‖ White Pond Lily. § Common Poppy.

ther.' And in another place, 'The glory of Lebanon shall come unto thee; the Fir tree and the Pine tree, and Box together, to beautify the place of my sanctuary; and I will make the place of my feet glorious.'"

In the Romish church, which abounds in external observances of religion, it is customary to bear Palm boughs in procession on the anniversary of the day when Christ went into Jerusalem, and the children strewed branches of Palm trees before him. In more northern latitudes, Box, Pine, Olive, and Willows are used as a substitute for real Palms, which do not grow there, as in Judea, by the way sides. The day on which this ceremony is performed is called Palm Sunday. An ancient English poet, alluding to the ceremonies of this day, says:

> "Besides they candles up do light, of vertue like in all,
> And *Willow braunches hollow, that they Palmes did use to call;*
> This done, they verily beleeve the tempest nor the storme
> Can neyther hurt themselves, nor yet there cattell nor there corne."*

In the Romish church, many superstitions exist with regard to some plants which happen to blossom about the time of certain Saint's days. In Italy and other countries in the south of Europe, where these superstitions first originated, the Dead Nettle is in blossom about the time of St. Vincent's day, a martyr who suffered for christianity under the Emperor Dioclesian, in the year 304.

The Winter Hellebore is usually in blossom about the time of the conversion of St. Paul, supposed to be in commemoration of that event.

The Crocus was dedicated to St. Valentine, as it appears about the period of that Saint's day, which is regarded as peculiarly sacred to affection; St. Valentine is recorded to have been eminent for love and charity. One species of Daisy appears about the time of St. Margaret's day; this is called in France, La Belle Marguerite, and in England, Herb Margaret.

The Crown Imperial blossoms about the 18th of March,† the day of St. Edward, who was King of the West Saxons, nature thus, as was imagined, honouring the day with a royal flower.

The Cardamine, or our Lady's flower, distinguished for its pure white, is dedicated to the Virgin Mary.

The Mary-gold, so called from a fancied resemblance of the florets of its disk to the rays of glory around the Virgin's head.

On St. George's day, (the patron saint of England,) the Blue bells, there called Field Hyacinth, tinge the meadows and pastures with their deep blue colour; they are thought to afford an emblem of the empire of the ocean, over which England assumes the rule.

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* The English of some centuries past is differently spelled from the modern.

† In the south of Europe.

The St. John's-wort blossoms near that Saint's day. The scarlet Lychnis, called the Great candlestick, or candle, (CANDELABRUM *ingens*,) lighted up for St. John the Baptist, who was a burning and a shining light. The White Lily expands about the time of the annunciation to the Virgin Mary, affording another coincidence of the blossoming of white flowers at the festivals consecrated to the mother of Christ. The Roses of summer are particularly said to fade about the period of St. Mary Magdalen's day.

The Passion flower is said to blossom about Holy Rood day. Allusions to this day being frequently found among writers of former days, it may be well to inform you that according to the legends of the Romish church, the cross on which our Saviour was crucified was discovered in 326, by Helena, the mother of Constantine, who is said to have built a church on the spot where it lay. The word *Rood* signifies the Cross; thus this day is the day of the Holy Cross.

It was during the middle ages, when the minds of men were influenced by the blindest superstition, that they thus imagined every operation of nature to be emblematical of something connected with their religious faith. Although these superstitions are trifling and absurd, they are interesting as connected with the annals of the human mind, and as shewing us the origen of many names of plants. Had the superstitious monks and nuns, who were the authors of these conceits, and at that time the most learned part of the community, been possessed of as much knowledge as most children in our country, they would have known that plants bloom earlier or later, according to various circumstances of climate; and that a flower which in Italy blossoms as early as February, might not appear in England before April; while the day of the Saint which the flower was supposed to commemorate, would occur at the same time in both places.

VARIOUS PHENOMENA OF PLANTS.

Plants exhibit some phenomena which are supposed to arise from the state of the atmosphere; accurate observers of nature have made remarks upon these changes in plants, as preceding certain changes of weather. Lord Bacon, who was remarkably attentive to all the appearances and changes of natural objects, is the author of some of the observations which we will now quote.

"*Chickweed, Anagallis.*—When the flower expands boldly and fully, no rain will happen for four hours or upwards: if it continues in that open state, no rain will disturb the summer's day: when it half conceals its miniature flower, the day is generally showery; but if it entirely shuts up or veils the white flower with its green mantle, let the traveller put on his great coat, and the ploughman, with his beasts of draught, expect rest from their labour.

"*Siberian Sowthistle*, *Sonchus*.—If the flowers of this plant keep open all night, rain will certainly fall the next day.

"*Trefoil*, *Hedysarum*.—The different species of Trefoil always contract their leaves at the approach of a storm: hence these plants have been termed the Husbandman's Barometer.

"*African Marygold*.—If this plant opens not its flowers in the morning about seven o'clock, you may be sure it will rain that day unless it thunders.

"*White Thorns* and *Dog-rose Bushes*.—Wet summers are generally attended with an uncommon quantity of seed on these shrubs, whence their unusual fruitfulness is a sign of severe winter."

Beside the above, there are several plants, especially those with compound yellow flowers, which nod, and during the whole day turn their flowers towards the sun, viz. to the East in the morning, to the South at noon, and to the West towards evening. This is very observable in the Sowthistle, *Sonchus arvensis*; and it is a well known fact, that a great part of the plants in a serene sky, expand their flowers, and as it were with cheerful looks behold the light of the sun; but before rain, they shut them up: as the Tulip.

The flowers of the *Alpine Whitlow Grass*, *Draba alpina*, and the Wintergreen, *Trientalis*, hang down in the night, as if the plants were asleep, lest rain or the moist air should injure the fertilizing dust.

One species of *Woodsorrel* shuts up or doubles its leaves before storms and tempests, but in a serene sky expands or unfolds them, so that husbandmen can pretty clearly foretell tempests from it. It is also well known that the Mountain Ebony, *Bauhinia*, Sensitive plants, and Cassia, observe the same rule.

Besides affording prognostics, many plants also fold themselves up at particular hours, with such regularity, as to have acquired particular names from this property. The following are among the more remarkable plants of this description.

Goatsbeard.—The flowers of both species of *Tragopogon*, open in the morning at the approach of the sun, and without regard to the state of the weather, regularly shut about noon. Hence it is generally known in the country by the name of *Go-to-Bed-at-Noon*.

The *Princesses' Leaf*, or *Four O'clock Flower*, *Mirabilis*, in the Malay Islands, is an elegant shrub so called by the natives, because their ladies are fond of the grateful odour of its white leaves. It takes its generic name from its quality of opening its flowers at four in the evening, and not closing them in the morning till the same hour returns, when they again expand in the evening at the same hour. Many people transplant them from the woods into their gardens, and use them as a dial or clock, especially in cloudy weather.

The *Evening Primrose*, *Œnothera*, is well known from its remarkable properties of regularly shutting with a loud popping noise, about sunset, and opening at sunrise. After six o'clock, these flowers regularly report the approach of night.

The *Tamarind tree*, *Parkinsonia*, the Water Lily, *Nymphæa*, the Marygolds, *Calendulæ*, the False Sensitive Plant, *Æschynomene*, and several others of the Diadelphia class, in serene weather, expand their leaves in the day time, and contract them during the night. According to some botanists, the Tamarind tree enfolds within its leaves the flowers or fruit every night, in order to guard them from cold or rain.

The flower of the Garden Lettuce, which is in a vertical plane, opens at seven o'clock and shuts at ten.

"A species of Serpentine Aloes, without prickles, whose large and beautiful flower exhales a strong odour of the Vanilla during the time of its expansion, which is very short, is cultivated in the imperial garden of Paris. It does not blow until towards the month of July, and about five o'clock in the evening, at which time it gradually opens its petals, expands them, droops, and dies. By ten o'clock the same night, it is totally withered, to the great astonishment of the spectators, who flock in crowds to see it.

"The *Cereus*, a native of Jamaica and Vera Cruz, expands an exquisitely beautiful flower, and emits a highly fragrant odour, for a few hours in the night, and then closes to open no more. The flower is nearly a foot in diameter, the inside of the calyx, of a splendid yellow, and the numerous petals are of a pure white. It begins to open about seven or eight o'clock in the evening, and closes before sunrise in the morning.

"The flower of the Dandelion possesses very peculiar means of sheltering itself from the heat of the sun, as it closes entirely whenever the heat becomes excessive. It has been observed to open in summer at half an hour after five in the morning, and to collect its petals towards the centre about nine o'clock."

Linnæus has enumerated forty-six flowers which possess this kind of sensibility: he divides them into three classes.

1. *Meteoric Flowers*, which less accurately observe the hour of folding, but are expanded sooner or later, according to the cloudiness, moisture, or pressure of the atmosphere.
2. *Tropical Flowers*, that open in the morning, and close before evening every day, but the hour of their expanding becomes earlier or later, as the length of the day increases or decreases.
3. *Equinoctial Flowers*, which open at a certain and exact

hour of the day, and for the most part close at another determinate hour.[*]

POETICAL DESCRIPTION OF THE DIURNAL CHANGES OF PLANTS.

"In every copse and sheltered dell,
Unveiled to the observant eye,
Are faithful monitors, who tell,
How pass the hours and seasons by.

The green robed children of the Spring,
Will mark the periods, as they pass,
Mingle with leaves Time's feathered wing,
And bind with flowers his silent glass.

Mark where transparent waters glide,
Soft flowing o'er their tranquil bed;
There, cradled on the dimpling tide,
Nymphæa[†] rests her lovely head.

But concious of the earliest beam,
She rises from her humid nest,
And sees reflected in the stream,
The virgin whiteness of her breast.

Till the bright Day-star to the west
Declines, in Ocean's surge to lave;
Then, folded in her modest vest,
She slumbers on the rocking wave.

The *Hieracium's*[‡] various tribe,
Of plumy seed and radiate flowers,
The course of Time their blooms describe,
And wake or sleep appointed hours.

Broad o'er its imbricated cup
The *Goat's-beard*[||] spreads its golden rays,
But shuts its cautious petals up,
Retreating from the noon tide blaze.

Pale as a pensive cloistered nun,
The *Bethlem Star*[§] her face unveils,
When o'er the mountain peers the Sun,
But shades it from the vesper gales.

Among the loose and arid sands,
The humble *Arenaria*[**] creeps;
Slowly the Purple Star expands,
But soon within its calyx sleeps.

And those small bells so lightly ray'd,
With young Aurora's rosy hue,
Are to the noon tide Sun displayed,
But shuts their plaits against the dew.

On upland slopes, the shepherds mark
The hour, when, as the dial true
Cichorium[††] to the towering Lark,
Lifts her soft eye serenely blue.

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[*] These facts upon the phenomena exhibited by plants, are from the Perennial Calendar, edited at Cambridge University, England.

[†] White Pond Lily. [‡] Hawk-week.

[||] TRAGOPOGON, sometimes called Go-to-bed-at-noon.

[§] ORNITHOGALUM *umbellatum*. [**] Sandwort. [††] Endive or Succory.

And thou 'wee crimson tipped flower,'*
  Gatherest thy fringed mantle round
Thy bosom, at the closing hour,
  When night drops bathe the turfy ground.

Unlike *Silene*,† who declines,
  The garish noontide's blazing light;
But when the evening crescent shines,
  Gives all her sweetness to the night.

Thus, in each flower and single bell,
  That in our path betrodden lie,
Are sweet remembrancers who tell,
  How fast our winged moments fly."

LECTURE XXXVIII.

Habits of Plants.—Agents which affect their growth.‡ *Their Habitations, and Geographical situations.—Elevation corresponding to Latitude.*

Plants, like men, are much under the dominion of habit. Several plants which are natives of warm countries, where their existence has been prolonged for successive years, have been removed to less temperate regions. Unable to bear the cold of their new situations, they must change their habits of growth before they can be cultivated with success. To secure this object, some of them pass through the successive stages of their existence with great rapidity, and accomplish in one summer what they had been accustomed to require years to perform.

The garden Nasturtion was originally a shrub, flourishing without cultivation on the banks of the Peruvian streams; yet transferred to this country, it becomes an annual plant, which arrives at maturity in a few months. The habits of other plants are with more difficulty subdued, and they must not at once be transferred from their native soil to one of a very different kind, but be removed by degrees. By gradually accustoming it to a diminution of temperature, rice has been cultivated in New Jersey, which, without this precaution, would not have come to maturity even in Virginia. The habits of Indian Corn, aided by climate and culture, have suffered still more remarkable changes. After having been several years raised in Canada, it arrived to perfection in a few weeks, and on that account is employed by us as an early corn. But that which has been long cultivated in Virginia, will not ripen in a New England summer; yet, originally, the early corn of Canada and that of Virginia were the same, both in habit and other properties.

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* An allusion to some lines of Burns', upon "Turning down a Mountain Daisy with the plough."

"Wee, modest, crimson tipped flower,
Thou'st met me in an evil hour;
For I maun crush among the stoure
                Thy slender stem;
To spare thee now is past my pow'r
                Thou bonie gem."

† Catch Fly.

‡ The remarks upon the Habits of Plants, and the Agents which affect their growth, are chiefly from Smith and Sumner.

Agents which affect the growth of Plants.

Of the various substances by which vegetables are nourished, *water* is thought the most important. Some plants grow and mature, with their roots immersed in water, without any soil; most of the marine plants are of this description.

Atmospheric air is necessary to the health and vigor of plants; if a plant is placed under a glass into which no air can enter, it withers and dies.

Most plants are found by analysis to contain a certain portion of salts, such as nitre and muriate of soda, or common salt. It is thought that the root absorbs them from the soil by which it is nourished.

No plants have been made to grow without *heat*, though some require a greater portion of it than others.

Plants may be made to grow without *light*, but they will not exhibit the verdure or any of the properties of health. The atmosphere, which is contaminated by the respiration of animals, is restored to purity by the vegetation of plants; but secluded from light, vegetables are no longer capable of converting a portion of the fixed air to their use, or of supplying the atmosphere with oxygen, on which its importance in supporting animal life chiefly depends. By the action of light, the carbon of the fixed air is interwoven with the texture of the plants. The aromatic plants, the Clove, Cinnamon, and the Peruvian bark, all owe their chief excellencies to the light of the Sun.

HABITATIONS OF PLANTS.

Plants are not thrown by chance over the surface of the globe, but we perceive that the Creator has regulated their distribution according to certain fixed principles; we find not only a wonderful adaptation of plants to the physical necessities of animals, but that they are also varied to correspond to the peculiar wants of animals in different climates.

First we would notice the herbs which cover the surface of the earth; had their stems been hard and woody, the greater part of the earth would have been inaccessible to the foot of man, until the vegetation was first destroyed by fire, or by some other means. Shall we suppose that the grass and herbs which now afford a soft carpet for our feet, ***happened by chance*** to grow thus, rather than hard and woody like the trees? Shall we suppose, too, that by chance the prevailing colour of vegetation is green, that colour upon which, above all, the eye rests with the most agreeable sensations? Suppose the grass and herbs to have been red or yellow, and with our present organs of sight, how painful would be the sensations excited by these bright colours! Instead of beholding nature with delight, we should turn from it, and vainly seek some object on which the eye might repose.

Woody shrubs occasionally alternate with herbs, but they are so placed as not to offer obstructions to the foot of man; they often grow out of the clefts of rocks, affording a means of climbing almost perpendicular precipices. Large trees are not usually placed so near together as to prevent a passage between them; their lowest branches are mostly at a height sufficient to admit men and beasts under them, and thus, few forests are impenetrable.

In cold countries, whether occasioned by distance from the equator, or elevation by means of mountains and table lands, we find the Pine, Fir, and Cedar, and other resinous plants, which furnish man, during his dreary season of winter, with light and fuel. The leaves of these trees are mostly filiform, or long and narrow, thus fitted for reverberating the heat, like the hair of animals, and for resisting the impetuosity of winds, which often prevail in those regions.

In warm countries, trees present in their foliage a resource from the scorching rays of the Sun; their leaves serving as fans and umbrellas. The leaf of the Banana is broad and long, like an apron; it has acquired the name of Adam's fig leaf. The leaves of the Cocoa tree are said to be from twelve to fifteen feet long, and from seven to eight broad. Those of the Talipot tree are equal in size. A traveller remarks respecting the leaves of the Talipot tree, that one is capable of covering from fifteen to twenty persons.* The soldiers, he says, use it for a covering to their tents. He remarks, that it seems an inestimable blessing of Providence in a country burnt up by the sun, and inundated by rains for six months of the year. In our climate during the warm seasons, Providence bestows upon us a variety of juicy and acid fruits, Cherries, Peaches, Plums, Melons, and Berries; the nuts and many fruits are fitted for preservation during the winter, so that we are never destitute of these bounties.

A remarkable instance of the care of Providence in providing for the wants of man, appears in what is related of a plant found amidst the burning deserts of Africa; the leaf of which is said to be in the form of a cruet, and to possess the property of secreting moisture to such a degree as to form a quantity of water sufficient for a draught to a thirsty person;[*] the end of the leaf is folded over the throat, as if to prevent the evaporation of the fluid. Various plants and trees, in hot regions, furnish refreshing draughts for the thirsty traveller.

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* See page 59.

These remarks might be pursued to an extent as great as the vastness of the vegetable kingdom, and wants of man; we have merely glanced at the subject of the adaptation of plants to the wants of animal life, hoping that as the subject has been suggested, you may be led to trace, from your own observation of the works of nature, the great designing mind which rules and governs all with such infinite wisdom and benevolence.

The earth, then, we find to be covered with a multitude of species of plants, differing not more by their external forms, than by their internal structure, each endowed with peculiar habits and instincts.

Some species seem adapted to the mountain, some to the valleys, and others to the plains; some require an argillaceous or *slaty* soil, others a calcareous soil, or a soil impregnated with *lime;* others a quartzose or *flinty* soil, and some will only grow where the earth contains soda, or marine salts. Many plants will only grow in water; we find here such as are peculiar to the marsh, the lake, the river, and the sea. Many plants require a very elevated temperature, others will only grow in mild and temperate climates, and some only in the midst of frosts and snows.

Thus every country where man is to be found has its vegetation. Some species of plants, with respect to localities, are confined to narrow limits.

A species of ORIGANUM, the *tournefortii*, discovered by Tournefort, in 1700, upon one single rock in the little island of Amorgos, was found eighty years afterwards in the same island, upon the same rock, and has never been discovered in any other situation. Some plants appear to confine themselves within certain longitudes, scarcely varying from the right to the left. The MENZIESIA *pallifolia*, a species of heath, confined between ten and fifteen degrees of west longitude, is found in Portugal, Spain, and Ireland. Latitude and elevation, by reason of mountains and table lands, produce a greater variety in the appearance of vegetation than almost any other causes.

Few plants are found to endure extreme cold. Botanists have estimated, that at Spitsbergen, in north latitude about 80°, there are but about 30 species of plants; in Lapland, in 70°, there are 539 species; at Madagascar, at the tropic of Capricorn, there are 5000; and at the equator a much greater number. These estimates fall very far short of the number of species now known, but they may give some idea of the difference in the vegetation of cold and warm climates.

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[*] This plant, from the general description of the leaf, would seem to be the Sarracenia; this, however, only grows in marshes.

GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF PLANTS.

In investigating the geographical situation of the vegetable kingdom, we see the powerful effects of light and heat. Feeble in the polar regions, vegetation acquires strength as we approach towards the equator, where the light of the sun is vivid, and its heat permanent and intense. The centre of the *Frigid Zone* is entirely destitute of vegetation. After passing the arctic circle, we find on the borders of the temperate zone a few species of plants, chiefly lichens, mosses, and ferns, also a few shrubs and berries. In the heat of a polar summer, the growth of plants is rapid; Lapland is the only country within this zone where any kind of grain can be raised.

The productions of the *Temperate Zone* gradually alter in character as they approach the tropics. Humboldt has divided the temperate zone, with respect to productions, into three regions: the cold, the temperate, and warm regions. In the cold region, grain may be raised to advantage, and berries grow in abundance. In the temperate region, the wine grape, grain, and fruits of many kinds, are cultivated in their greatest perfection. The warm region produces olives, figs, oranges, and lemons.

The variety of plants in the *Torrid Zone* is very great. Trees are more numerous in proportion to other plants, than in the temperate zones; the same tribes which are there, slender and humble plants, here spread into lofty trees, many of which are adorned by large and beautiful flowers. The richest fruits and spices, and the most valuable medicinal plants are found here. In ascending the mountains of the torrid zone, as the temperature varies, each section has its own distinct plants, and we find in succession, the production of every region, from the equator to the poles.*

As the mountains of the torrid zone afford every variety of climate between their base and their summit, so they are capable of producing all the vegetables of every climate; but as the temperature diminishes, as the latitude increases, so, generally speaking, the productions, as we proceed from the tropic northward or southward, correspond with the elevation at which the same plants will grow upon a mountain within the tropics. Every plant requires other circumstances alike; the same mean annual temperature,† for example. The magnificent plantain tree and valuable sugar-cane require a mean annual heat of 82 to 73 degrees, but 73 degrees of mean annual heat, is not found beyond the 27th degree of latitude; consequently, the plantain and sugar-cane will not ripen in the open air in a higher latitude; and this Baron Humboldt has found to correspond with the height of 3000 feet under the equator; the cotton plant will not flourish without 68 degrees of heat, which is not found beyond 34 degrees of latitude, which corresponds with about 3,600 feet of elevation at the equator. The same reasoning applies to all other plants, with the exceptions arising from warm vallies, moisture of air, and richness of soil.

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* See plate 1.

† For explanation of mean annual temperature, see note under vines, Lecture 22.

SEE PLATE I.

	Feet
"The highest spot on which man ever trod,	19,400
The highest limit of the lichen plant,	18,225
The lowest limit of perpetual snow under the equator,	15,730
The highest limit of pines under the equator,	12,801
The highest limit of trees under the equator,	11,125
The highest limit of oaks under the equator,	10,500
The highest limit of the Peruvian bark tree,	9,500
The lowest limit of pines under the equator,	5,685
The highest limit of palms and bananas,	3,280

LECTURE XXXIX.

History of Botanical Science—From the Creation of the World, to a Revival of Letters in the Reign of Charlemagne, in the year A. D. 770.

We are now to enter upon a part of our course of botanical investigations, which, if you have well understood the preceding lectures, will be highly interesting; it will require little effort of thought to comprehend, and will be less encumbered with technical terms than the other departments.

We propose to give an account of the progress of botanical knowledge; and this being closely connected with other sciences, you may consider it as a general view of the progress of natural science.

After becoming familiar with a science, the mind very naturally seeks for information respecting its origin, and the progress by which it advanced from the first rude conceptions which might have been formed, to its gradual developement and comparative perfection.

The history of the progress of a science makes a part of the science itself; we are interested in the various efforts of philosophers, their experience and observations, and the trains of reasoning by which they have arrived at those conclusions which are the basis of science.

In Botany, as in the other sciences, physical wants were the first guides; man at first sought to find in vegetables, food, then remedies for diseases, and lastly amusement and instruction.

The first account of plants may be traced to the history of the creation by Moses. It was on the third day of this great work that God said, "Let the earth bring forth grass, the herb yielding seed, and the fruit tree yielding fruit after his kind, *whose seed is in itself*, upon the earth: and it was so; and the earth brought forth grass, and the herb yielding seed after his kind, and the tree yielding fruit, whose seed was in itself after his kind; and *God saw that it was good.*" After this, it is recorded that God gave to Adam every herb and every *tree bearing fruit;* the latter was for him exclusively, but to the beasts of the earth, and the fowls of the air, and to every thing wherein there is life, he also gave the *green herb* for meat.

It is recorded that Adam gave names to all the beasts of the field and the fowls of the air; but that he had not a help-mate, and therefore God created Eve. The poet, Milton, imagines that to Eve was assigned the pleasant task of giving names to flowers, and numbering the tribes of plants. When our first parents, after their wicked disobedience of the Divine command, are about to leave their delightful Eden, Eve, in the language of the Poet, with bitter regret exclaims:

> "Must I thus leave thee, Paradise? thus leave
> Thee, native soil, these happy walks and shades,
> Fit haunt of Gods, where I had hope to spend,
> Quiet, though sad, the respite of that day,
> That must be mortal to us both? Oh flowers
> That never will in other climate grow,
> My early visitation, and my last
> At even; which I bred up with tender hand,
> From the first opening bud, and gave ye names;
> Who now shall rear ye to the sun, or rank
> Your tribes, and water from the ambrosial fount?"

The Bible, and the poems of Homer, afford us the only vestiges of the botanical knowledge of the earliest ages of the world.

Great advantages were afforded to the Jews for obtaining a knowledge of plants, in their long wanderings over the face of the earth, before they settled in Judea. When in possession of this fertile country, they extended their intercourse with foreign nations; the vessels of Solomon frequented the shores of the Red Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the East Indian Islands. In the Book of Kings it is said, "God gave Solomon wisdom and understanding above all the children of the East country, and all the wisdom of Egypt, for he was wiser than all men. He spake proverbs and songs; he also spake of *trees*, from the *cedar tree* that is in Lebanon even unto the *hyssop*, that springeth out of the wall; and people from all countries came to hear his wisdom."

The Magi, or "wise men of the east," cultivated the sciences to a great extent; but they kept their discoveries in mysterious concealment, in order the better to tyrannize over the minds of the people. Their researches were in a great measure lost to the world. Greece, however, received from Asia and Egypt the first elements of knowledge.

The philosophers of Greece, too eager to learn nature at one glance, were not satisfied with the slow process of observation and experiment, and to ascend from particular facts to general principles; but they believed themselves able, by the force of their own genius, to build up systems that would explain all phenomena; supposing that man had in his mind, preconceived ideas of what nature ought to be. This error in the philosophy of the ancients, for a long time obstructed the progress of all science; and it was not until laying aside this false notion, and admitting that the only sure method of learning nature was to study her works, that the labours of philosophers began to be followed by important discoveries.

The greater part of the ancient Greek philosophers asserted, that plants were organized like animals, that they possessed sensible and rational souls, capable of desires and fears, pleasure and pain. Pythagoras of Samos, who travelled in Egypt, and was there instructed by the priests of the goddess Isis, is said by Pliny to have been the first of the Greek writers who composed a treatise on the properties of plants.

Seven men of the name of Hippocrates, wrote upon the medicinal properties of plants; but their descriptions, being destitute of system, are vague and cannot be applied to plants with any degree of certainty.

Aristotle, perceiving that the course taken by preceding philosophers had not conducted them to the true knowledge of things, partially renounced their false ideas, and rested more upon observation and experience. In his researches he was favoured by Alexander of whom he had been the preceptor. That conqueror, in the midst of pride and the fury of passion, still possessed the love of true glory, and a desire that his conquests might serve to promote the improvement of the human mind; he allowed to Aristotle, in the prosecution of his scientific investigations, every facility that wealth and power could bestow.

Aristotle believed, that in nature there was a regular progress, from inorganized matter upwards to man, and from man upwards to the Deity; that beings were connected together by certain affinities, composing an immense chain of which the links were all connected. The poet Thompson seems to have had this idea in his mind when he wrote thus:

"And lives the man whose universal eye
Has swept at once the unbounded scheme of things?
Has any seen
The mighty chain of beings, lessening down
From infinite perfection to the brink
Of dreary nothing, desolate abyss!"

This idea of a regular chain of beings presenting itself with such grandeur and simplicity has had many admirers, but facts do not always seem to correspond with this theory. In the vegetable kingdom we should find it impossible to trace a regular gradation from the Oak to a Moss, (if we were to make these the extremes of the chain of vegetable substances,) and say exactly in what part of the scale each family of plants should be placed; it would rather seem in many cases, as if the links of the chain had been broken or disunited.

Aristotle considered plants as intermediate between inorganized matter and animals. Plants he said are not distinguished from animals in being destitute of the seat of life, the heart; because of this, the reptiles and inferior order of animals are also destitute. Plants have no consciousness of themselves, or organs of sense to know what is out of themselves; animals possess these faculties, therefore Aristotle says they are different. We think it would have been difficult for him to have discovered any evidence of consciousness in the sponge, or any marks by which it might appear that this animal substance (for such it is thought to be,) has any knowledge of any thing external to itself. However great may be the veneration entertained for the opinions of Aristotle, we believe his distinction between plants and animals will at this time find no supporters. This philosopher published his works on natural history about 384 years before Christ.

Theophrastus, the friend and pupil of Aristotle, published a great number of learned works; among others "*A History of Plants*," and "*The Causes of Vegetation*." He treated separately of *aquatic* plants, of *parasites*, of *culinary herbs*, and of *flowering plants;* he remarked upon the uses of each plant, the place where it grew, and whether it was woody or herbaceous. He had no idea of genera or species; his names were merely local, and his descriptions generally indefinite. His views upon the *Physiology of plants*, were superior to his *descriptions* of them; he remarked upon their different external organs; distinguished the seed lobes, (Cotyledons,) from the leaves; gave just ideas upon their functions, and upon the offices of the root. He explained their *anatomy*, as well as it was possible, without the assistance of the microscope, which, (as the science of optics was then unknown,) had not been invented. Theophrastus seemed too much inclined to compare the structure of vegetables to that of animals; imagining that he found in plants bones, veins and arteries.

A physician of Greek extraction, Dioscorides, travelled over Greece, Asia Minor, and Italy, in order to observe the plants of those countries; his works were written in Greek; he divided plants into four classes, viz: *1st, aromatic, 2d, vinous, 3d, medicinal,* and *4th alimentary or nutritious.* The labours of this botanist were of little value, in after times, on account of want of method in his descriptions. He gave the names and properties of 600 plants, but having no idea of species or genera, his work was but a chaos of facts, which were so imperfectly expressed as to render it impossible to apply them to use.

The elder Pliny, who lived in the reign of Nero, treated of the history of plants, but he neglected nature and derived his science from the works of his predecessors. False systems of philosophy seemed to fetter the noblest minds, and prevent their pursuing those methods of investigation which would have led to a true knowledge of nature. The genius of Pliny was vast and active; he consecrated to scientific researches and literary works the leisure which public duties left him. His "*History of the World,*" which was a compilation of all the knowledge of the ancients, upon the subject of natural history, the only one of his writings which has escaped the ravages of time and barbarians, is but a small portion of his labours. He is considered faulty in recording both truths and errors, often transmitting them without observation or criticism, and sometimes favouring absurd traditions; but his work is justly admired for the greatness of its plan, which embraced the whole of nature, for the elegance of its style, for the wonderful art with which the highest considerations of practical philosophy are associated with natural history.

In the year 79 after Christ, Pliny fell a sacrifice to his desire of knowledge; in an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, wishing to contemplate as near as possible so sublime a spectacle, he perished, suffocated by the sulphureous exhalations.

Galen in the 2d century wrote upon the medicinal qualities of plants, but gave no descriptions. The love of the sciences, seemed in the prosperous days of Rome, to be extinguished; the "Mistress of the world," corrupted by victories, and by tyrants, had abandoned herself to luxury. The false philosophy of the vanquished Greeks reigned in the schools of victorious Rome, chasing away every trace of true knowledge. Religious fanaticism had also its influence; Christians and Pagans destroyed libraries, and the monuments of literature sacred and profane.

At this time the barbarians of the north and west, precipitated themselves upon a country weakened by effeminacy. Italy ravaged by the Huns and the Vandals, became successively the prey of the Heruli, of the Goths and Vandals. These people, nursed in war, abhorred the sciences and arts, believing they enervated courage, and they allowed not their children to cultivate them.

The Latin ceased to be the common language, but a corrupt mixture of barbarous languages took its place; the population was greatly diminished; the country formerly fertile and cultivated became sickly marshes and overgrown forests, inhabited by wild beasts.

In this dark period botany shared the fate of the other sciences. The monks, strangers to the first elements of literature, and yet passing for the lights of their age, spoke in a barbarous language of the plants of Theophrastus and Pliny, commented upon writings they were incapable of comprehending, and mingling with their errors respecting facts, the most shameful superstitions.

LECTURE XL.

History of Botany, from the eighth century to the discovery of America.

The state of science was thus gloomy in the empire of the West, when Charlemagne, a monarch endowed with a genius for learning and civilization, in a barbarous age, vainly endeavoured to relight the torch of human knowledge.

The renown of Charlemagne extended to Asia; he entered into a correspondence with the famous Caliph of the Saracens, Haroun Alraschid, a man who greatly contributed towards polishing and enlightening the Arabians, and who preferred the friendship of the king of France to that of all the princes of Europe; for none like Charlemagne possessed a desire for intellectual greatness.

After the death of Charlemagne, which took place in the year 814, Europe became involved in still greater mental darkness than before.

On the separation of the Roman Empire into the Eastern and Western Empires, and the latter, weakened by luxury and effeminacy, had fallen an easy prey into the hands of barbarians, the Empire of the east, though feeble, yet preserved the precious deposits of ancient literature; but the greater part of the learned, occupied with the subtleties of scholastic theology, made no effort to enlarge the boundaries of natural science. Religious intolerance drove from the empire many enlightened men, who, banished by the emperor Theodosius, carried among the Arabs the taste for Greek and Latin literature, and founded schools upon the shores of the Euphrates, where they taught rhetoric, languages, and medicine.

The Arabs, fond of mysteries, and led by their genius and ardent imaginations, to the cultivation of poetry and works of fiction, seemed to have little taste for sciences which required assiduous application, and patient investigation. Under Mahomet, urged on by fanaticism, they were the conquerors and scourges of the civilized world. Alexandria proved their ruthless violence; this city, by turns the asylum and the tomb of letters, had witnessed, under the first of the Cæsars, the destruction of the library collected by the Ptolemies; under Aurelian, that founded by Augustus; under Theodosius, that which Antony had given to Cleopatra; and for the fourth time in possession of an immense collection of books, acquired through her love for philosophy, this city saw her magnificent library reduced to ashes by the victorious Saracens.

This barbarous but noble race at length became imbued with the love of science; a succession of caliphs, (among whom was Haroun Alraschid, already spoken of as the friend of Charlemagne,) by their devotion to learning, rendered Bagdad the most enlightened city of the earth. Their learned men began to construct maps of conquered countries, and to describe objects of natural history: distant voyages extended and multiplied their commercial relations; and mathematics, medicine, and natural history, were cultivated with ardour.

When the Arabs had conquered Spain, they carried thither letters and arts, and their schools became celebrated throughout the world. In the 11th century the French, Italians, Germans, and English went to them to learn the elements of science. The Arabians preserved their superiority in the sciences, at least, if not in literature, until towards the close of the 15th century. But when this people, divested gradually of their European conquests, were at last driven from Spain into Africa, they seemed, as if by instinct, to replunge into the savage ignorance from which they had been drawn by the efforts of a few great minds.

The Arabs had considered plants more as physicians and agriculturalists, than as botanists; but although their descriptions of plants were imperfect, their labours were not useless to botanical science. They discovered many plants of Persia, India, and China, which were unknown to the ancients. They, however, fell into the error of dwelling more upon the works of Aristotle, Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny, than of observing nature; almost believing, nature herself must be wrong, when she deviated from those celebrated philosophers.

The *Crusades*, commenced at the close of the 11th century, and continued until towards the middle of the 13th, prove the barbarity of the times; yet we cannot doubt, that these distant and romantic expeditions were suggested by the desire of change, and the vague wish to see and to know new things;

and hastened the awakening of the human mind from its long sleep of ages.

The 12th and 13th centuries, witnessed in Italy the revival of a taste for letters and the fine arts; the commerce of that country was flourishing, the people made long voyages by sea, and in the relations which they published, spoke of the vegetable productions of the countries they had visited, in such a manner as excited the curiosity of the nations of Europe.

About this period, it is supposed, herbariums, or collections of dried plants, began to be composed. This was an important era in botanical science; for nature is ever true, and incapable of leading into error, while descriptions, or even drawings may often give false views of natural objects.

The science of botany, was not enriched by a single work of any merit, from the fall of the Roman Empire, a period which marked the decay of literature, until the 15th century. Those, in the dark ages, who pretended to any knowledge of plants, only quoted from the Greek and Roman writers, but they were ignorant even of the principles of the languages in which their works were written. In the 15th century Italy was governed by wise princes, who were influenced by a desire to promote knowledge among their people. They invited to their country learned men from Greece, from whom they might learn the language of Homer and Aristotle.

At this time the Turks threatened Constantinople, and that capital of the empire of the East at length fell into their hands. The literature of Greece now took refuge in Italy; the ancient languages were revived, and at this time translations of ancient writers, with learned commentaries, were given. But these labours, although exercising an important influence upon literature, were not equally fortunate with respect to the progress of natural history. The learned writings of antiquity were accurately studied, but blinded by the brilliancy of great names, men of learning looked not upon nature; they had yet to learn, that without examining and comparing real objects, there can be no solid foundation in natural history.

At the period of which we are now speaking, a physician of Germany, published some indifferent descriptions of plants accompanied by a few engravings; this connexion of drawing and botany, although the whole was badly executed, was considered as an important improvement in the science.

While Italy was thus a second time, enriched with the literary treasures of Greece, Spain and Portugal were becoming enlightened by intercourse with foreign nations. The Portuguese extended their voyages to the western coast of Africa, and the Cape de Verd islands; the cape of Good Hope was at length discovered, and Vasco de Gama sailng around this cape reached the

East Indies. It was at this period that Christopher Columbus, discovered the New World.

This event, so important to the old world, is to us who inhabit this pleasant and favoured country, one of deep interest. Ages upon ages passed on after the world was created, and America remained with regard to the Eastern continent as though she existed not. The lofty Andes raised their snowy heads to the clouds, the majestic Amazon rolled onwards to the Atlantic, our lakes spread out their vast expanse of waters, our own Hudson and Connecticut received their tributary streams, and bore them to the ocean; but to what people were these grandeurs presented, and what had been the changes in the moral world, while nature had moved on in her unchanging course? History is silent! But while in the old world empires had been rising, continuing for centuries stationary, and then decaying; succeeded and succeeded by others pursuing the same track: were no changes going on in the American continent? Had no mighty nations ever existed, had no arts or letters been cultivated, had the savage Indian for thousands of years, been sole lord of one half of the world, and when and how, did the first inhabitants of this continent come from Asia, where man was placed at his creation? These are inquiries which naturally arise on tracing the historic page through so long a period of time, until suddenly this new world bursts upon our vision! but, although many speculations, have from time to time appeared, respecting the probable history of America, all until its discovery by Columbus remains a sealed book.

LECTURE XLI.

History of Botany, from the beginning of the 16th century to the time of Linnæus.

We have now traced the progress of botanical knowledge from the earliest periods of the world to the discovery of America. About this time Botanic gardens began to be cultivated: these afforded new opportunities for investigation, by comprehending within such limits, vegetables of all countries, as enabled the botanist to compare them, and to watch them in their growth and different states of developement.

From the days of Theophrastus until this period, Botany instead of becoming more perfect had been rendered more obscure. This was not owing to want of attention or labour, but to the false rules of philosophy which had so long prevailed.

At length the cause of the evil seemed to be discovered. Many writers protested against the erroneous opinions of their times; they said, our blind respect for the ancients is an insurmountable obstacle to the progress of botany. We expect to find every where the plants of Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and Pliny; whereas they did not know one hundredth part of the plants which cover the globe. The first of them never went out of Greece; the second left only unconnected notes, treating without order upon the medical qualities of plants; and Pliny copied these notes without comment or criticism. We cannot apply to the plants of Germany or France the names under which the ancients described those of Italy, Greece, and Asia: before studying the plants of foreign countries, we ought to know those of our own. Of what use are disputes about the nature and qualities of species, when we are not able to distinguish one from another.

These reflections led to a happy revolution, not only in this science, but in all others; it may be called the era of true philosophy. Although the principles, which were now discovered, were not much applied until the time of Bacon, Newton, Linnæus, and Locke, perhaps never so perfectly applied in inquiries into the nature of the *mind* as in the present century by Brown.

Up to the period of which we are now speaking, plants had only been described in alphabetical order; about this time some German botanists attempted something like a collection of plants into species; this improvement was received with much approbation.

We are at this time presented with the names of many who were engaged in examining and describing plants; among them we find little to distinguish one above the others. Some are commemorated by the names of plants; Fuchsias, of Germany, by the plant Fuchsia, (Ladies' ear-drop); Lobel, physician to James I. by the Lobelia, (Cardinal flower); and Lonicer in the Lonicera, (Honey-suckle).

But, notwithstanding the labours of many learned men, little real improvement would have been made in the science of Botany, had there not, at that time, existed some minds of superior genius, who turned their attention to tracing some proper method of classification. The names most illustrious in the annals of botanical science which here present themselves, are Gesner, Clusius, Cœsalpinus, and Bauhin; of the latter name were two brothers, both of whom are deservedly celebrated.

Gesner, a native of Switzerland, born in 1516, was of obscure and humble origin, but possessed of a powerful and penetrating mind.

He attempted to make a general collection of the objects of Natural History; he explored the Alps, and discovered many plants until then unknown. He is distinguished from those who had gone before him, in his suggestions that there existed in the vegetable kingdom groups or genera, each one composed of many species, united by similar characters of the flower and fruit. Soon after the publication of this opinion, botanists began to understand that the different families of plants have among themselves natural relations, founded upon resemblances and affinities, and that the most obvious are not always the most important. These are fundamental truths; and the distinction of species, the establishment of genera, and of natural families, seemed to follow of course after these principles were once established.

Clusius was born a few years later than Gesner; his parents had destined him for the profession of the law, but his decided taste for Botany induced him to abandon this profession. He was learned in the ancient and modern languages, but his enthusiasm for natural history induced him to lay aside every other pursuit. He travelled over almost all the west of Europe, in order to make discoveries in the vegetable kingdom; he soon excelled all the botanists of the age in the knowledge both of native plants and exotics. He had the direction of the Imperial garden at Vienna, and afterwards was a public professor of botany at Leyden. His passion for the study of plants was not enfeebled by age or infirmities; his enthusiasm in this science terminated only with his life. Before his time the art of describing plants with precision and accuracy was unknown; but his descriptions were neither faulty from superfluous terms, nor from the omission of important circumstances. He was the first who proposed to divide plants into classes.

Cœsalpinus, a native of Florence, who was contemporary with Clusius, proposed to form species into classes. The characters which he employed for this purpose, were the *duration* and *size* of *plants*, *presence* or *absence* of *flowers*, the *situation of the seed*, the *number* of *cells* in the fruit, and the *number* of *seeds* which they contained, the *adherence* of the *calyx* to the *germ* and the *nature of the root*, whether *bulbous* or *fibrous*. This method was too imperfect to be followed, it had neither the simplicity or the unity to render its application useful.

John Bauhin, though younger than Gesner, was his friend and pupil; he composed a general history of plants; this was a work evincing great learning and accurate investigation. Gaspard Bauhin, the younger brother, no less active and learned, and endowed with a still more penetrating genius, conceived the design of a work which should contain a history of all known plants, together with the different names which other writers had applied to the same plant. Clusius and the elder Bauhin had imagined something like a genus of plants, formed by a group of resembling species, but Gaspard Bauhim expressed this more decidedly in remarks upon generic distinctions; his work, which was the result of forty years labour, is said to have been of great assistance to Linnæus, in perfecting our present system of Botany.

The 17th century in its commencement, was not favourable to the sciences. Europe was agitated by continual wars, and the arts of peace were neglected; but in the last part of that age, the taste for natural history revived; men of highly gifted minds applied themselves to the study of Botany, and many undertook long voyages, with the only design of examining foreign plants. Botanists were astonished with the great number of interesting plants discovered by travellers in the region of South Africa, around the Cape of Good Hope, and in the East India Islands.

At this period the plants of our own country began to excite the curiosity of scientific Europeans. Among the number of voyagers to America, was a Roman Catholic priest, Plumier, celebrated for his mathematical and botanical knowledge; he made three voyages, and gave drawings and descriptions of more American species than any other traveller had done.

We now find the names of many who were distinguished by their efforts in the cause of science, but a notice of each individual would carry us beyond our limits, and prevent that clear conception of the state of the science, which the statements of a few conspicuous facts may produce.

Botanists now began to pay some attention to the stamens and pistils of plants; it was suggested that the science would remain imperfect as long as species and genera were undefined; orders and classes also were recommended. Natural resemblances and affinities were studied. A work was written upon the umbelliferous plants; it was the first attempt at describing in one mass, any single group of plants by characters peculiar to the whole. This, was followed by several attempts, to form a natural method of classification; among the most approved of these methods was that of Ray, who published a work called "*A General History* of Plants;" in this he divided all plants into 33 classes, 27 of which were composed of *herbs*, the rest of *trees*.

The first botanist who thought of classing plants without any reference to their being either herbs or trees, was a German, of the name of Rivinius, who proposed to consider as the foundation of classification, the *absence* or *presence* of *flowers;* the *manner in which they were situated, or* their *inflorescence;* the *number* of *petals;* and the *regular or irregular form of the corolla.*

A botanist of the name of Magnol, at this time was honoured, by having his name given to the splendid Magnolia, an American plant, which then began to be known in Europe.

The method published by Tournefort, of France, which has been explained in another department of our subject, was published about the year 1700. While very young, the author of this method discovered an enthusiastic fondness for botanical pursuits; he had been destined, by his friends, for a profession; but his genius seemed so strongly bent upon the study of nature, that he was at length permitted to indulge without restraint in his favourite pursuits. He ranged over the Alps and Pyrenees, and many provinces of France, collecting the flowery treasures offered by those fertile regions; often in peril from banditti, and exposing his life to hazards, in climbing terrific precipices, or amidst the glaciers of the mountains.

The method of Tournefort, which was founded upon the form of the corolla, although imperfect, greatly assisted the progress of *that botanist* who stands first on the catalogue of the labourers in this department of Natural History. You do not need to be told that we here refer to Linnæus.

You will observe that the attempts of botanists had been hitherto chiefly directed towards the attainment of some proper method for the arrangement of plants; the attention of some investigating minds was now turned towards their *Anatomy and Physiology*. Since the days of the first Greek naturalists, these departments of botanical science had lain neglected; but now their confused opinions of the ancients served to suggest experiments and observations, which resulted in solid discoveries.

The invention of the Microscope threw light upon the mysteries of nature, which, without the invention of this instrument, must ever have remained in obscurity; by its assistance botanists studied the internal structure of vegetables; they described the *heart*, *wood* and *pith*; they perceived the new formed bud, yet invisible to the naked eye; the future plant existing in the bulbous roots and even in the seed; pores were discovered, which were found to be the organs of the expiration and inspiration of gases, thrown out as noxious, or inhaled as nutritious. The importance of the stamens and pistils as essential to the perfection of the seed of vegetables began to be suggested.

As yet, however, the science of Botany lay in scattered fragments of various imperfect and contending systems; much labour had been bestowed, and great improvements made, but there seemed to be no central point around which these improvements might be collected; the learned world were sensible of the deficiency; but it required great genius, great observation of nature, and courage to stem the tide of popular prejudices, in any one who should come forward to attempt the work of reform.

Charles Linnæus, an inhabitant of Sweden, suddenly emerging from obscurity, offered to the world a system of Botany, so far superior to all others, as to leave no room for dispute as to its comparative merit. All preceding systems were immediately laid aside, and the classification of Linnæus was received with scarcely a dissenting voice. What this system was, you have not now to learn, since it has been the basis of your botanical studies. Linnæus extended the principles of his classification to the animal and mineral kingdoms; in the language of an eminent botanist,* "His magic pen turned the wilds of Lapland into fairy fields, and the animals of Sweden came to be classed by him, as they went to Adam in the garden of Eden to receive each his particular name."

LECTURE XLII.

History of Botany, from the time of Linnæus to the present.

Linnæus was born in 1707; his father was a clergyman, and had designed his son for the same sacred office; but seeing him leave his studies to gather flowers, he inferred that he possessed a weak and trifling mind, unfit for close investigation, and was about to put him to a mechanical employment; when some discerning persons perceiving in his devotion to the works of nature, the germ of a great and lofty mind, placed him in a situation favourable to the developement of his peculiar talents, where he was allowed, without restraint, to study the book of nature, "This elder Scripture, writ by God's own hand."

Linnæus formed anew the language of botanical science; every organ of the plant he defined with precision, and gave it an appropriate name; every important modification was designated by a particular term. Thus comparisons became easy, and confusion was avoided. The characters of plants appeared in a new light. Each species took, besides the name of the genus to which it belonged, a specific name which recalled some peculiarity, distinctive of the species. Before that time the species, instead of being thus named, required in some cases a whole sentence to express the name.

But what rendered the works of Linnæus most popular, was his artificial system, in which he had made the stamens and pistils subservient to a most simple and clear arrangement; he remarked the *different insertions of the stamens; their union by means of their filaments had been before observed, but he employed them in a manner entirely original.*

This "*Northern Light,*" as he has sometimes been termed, contributed to the progress of physiology by his own discoveries, and by improving upon the suggestions of those who had gone before him.

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* Sir James E. Smith.

In the details of science, he was no less accurate, than bold and comprehensive in his general views. The world knew not which to admire most, the multiplicity, the novelty, or the profound views of this modern Aristotle. His school became the resort of men of science from all Europe; and he seemed to have acquired that influence over the human mind, which had been peculiar to the ancient philosophers of Greece.

The defects of this great man, for human nature is never without its imperfections, were, that he sometimes carried too far a favourite idea; endowed with a brilliant imagination, he was at times somewhat blinded by the beauty of his own conceptions, and strove to reconcile nature to the visions of his own fancy.

We have, in our investigations of the Artificial System, occasionally pointed out in it some imperfections, particularly in the separation of natural families; but no means of remedying these have yet been found, and we still, after the lapse of near a century, with the exception of a few alterations, receive this system as left by its author.

Linnæus died in 1778; ten years afterwards a society of naturalists, distinguished by his name, was founded in London; this society is now in possession of his library, herbariums, collections of insects and shells, with numerous manuscripts. Sir James Edward Smith was the founder of this society, and its first and only president, until his death, which has recently occurred. He translated the writings of Linnæus, (which were originally in Latin,) and illustrated them by his own comments; no one, perhaps, has done more towards rendering botanical science accessible to all classes of people than this elegant writer.

The method of Jussieu, of France, we have explained in connexion with the systems of Tournefort and Linnæus; he has dwelt particularly upon the natural affinities of plants, and his orders are much approved; but the artificial system is the key to this, for with the natural method alone we should find great difficulty in learning the names of plants.

France is distinguished for the number and accuracy of its naturalists. Mirbel, a distinguished professor of botany in Paris, has pursued his inquiries into the anatomical structure, and the physical operations of plants, to an extent not exceeded by any other philosopher. The Baron Humboldt spent five years in investigating the vegetable productions of the equatorial regions in America, and his remarks on vegetables, as a criterion of climate, are original and interesting.

In turning from Europe to our own country, we find the state of literature highly flourishing, and a taste for the natural sciences, universally diffused. The names of many of our naturalists stand high in Europe, as well as in their own country.

Among these are Silliman, who established the first scientific journal, and encouraged others to pursue the course of investigation which he himself has followed so successfully; and Eaton, who has indefatigably laboured to bring science within the reach of every inquirer, by divesting it of the dress of foreign languages, and the parade of learning; not only rendering the labours of others of more general utility, but adding to the common stock, the result of years of inquiry and observation.

To go back to the infancy of science in the United States, we find the name of Bartram stands recorded in history, as that of the first native of our country who was conspicuous for botanical researches.

Houston investigated the region of Canada, and described many of its plants; in honour of him is named the little flower HOUSTONIA *cærulea.*

Clayton made a list of Virginian plants, and is commemorated in the beautiful CLAYTONIA *virginica.*

Kalm, a pupil of Linnæus, whose name is given to the KALMIA, (American laurel,) spent three years in America, and returned to Europe laden with botanical treasures; the sight of the American plants brought by his pupil, many of which were entirely new to him, is said to have produced such an effect upon Linnæus, that although lying ill of the gout, and unable to move, his spirits were rekindled, and in the delight of his mind he forgot his bodily anguish, and recovered from his disease.

Among the earliest botanist of North America, were Colden, Michaux, and Muhlenberg; Pursh was the first who furnished a system of North American plants, so arranged as to be useful to the student. Some of the first teachers of the science were Barton, Hosack, and Mitchel. The first lecturer on Botany in the interior of North America, was Professor Amos Eaton. Dr. Bigelow gave a course of lectures in Boston, in the year 1813, and soon after published his Boston Flora.

Professor Ives and Dr. Tully did much in New England towards awakening a zeal for the science, in the years 1815 and 1816; and at a later period, Dr. Sumner has pursued and illustrated the study with much zeal and success.

Want of books was a great impediment to the progress of the science when Eaton published his Botanical Dictionary and Manual of Botany; this book gave a new impulse to the progress of the science; its familiar method, and simple style induced many to commence the study. This was followed by many other works describing plants, and several elementary works; of the former class were Nuttall's Genera, Elliott's Southern Plants, Barton's Flora of Philadelphia, Darlington's, Torrey's, and Bigelow's Floras; these furnished descriptions of most American plants, not included in the works of Pursh. Among the Elementary works are "Barton's Elements," a large work containing much that is interesting in the physiology of plants; "Locke's Botany," a small book, but exhibiting a plan of arrangement simple and methodical; "Sumner's Compendium of Botany," written in a beautiful and pure style; and more recently, "Nuttall's Elementary work," which gives in popular language more facts with regard to plants, than almost any other work of the kind.* In all the books which we have enumerated, none have been designed as a full and connected course of botanical study. It appears necessary in order to render the attainment of botanical knowledge easy to all, that the principles of the science should be embodied in one volume, of a size suitable for a school book. In your studies either of Natural Philosophy or of Chemistry, one volume with the explanations of your instructors is sufficient; the study of Botany is more simple than either; and why should you be obliged to seek in several books, that information which might be as well presented in one? The publication of our present course of instruction, may, perhaps, remove some obstacles which have hitherto impeded the progress of botanical information, particularly in schools and among our own sex. From some examples in our own class we see, that even children may become botanists, and lay aside their toys to divert themselves by distinguishing the organs of plants and tracing out their classification. A few years since, the science of Botany was confined almost wholly to those of the Medical profession, now it is within the reach of all who can read the English language, and few indeed are the natives of our republic who are destitute of this qualification.

Of all sciences, perhaps no one is settled on a firmer foundation than that of Botany; the improvements of future years, we are not able to anticipate; but it is probable that as discoveries and improvements are made, they will cluster around the principles already established; each taking its proper place in the various departments now arranged for the reception of scientific truths.

The spirit of our government is highly favourable to the promotion and dissemination of knowledge, and although Europe may boast of more brilliant stars than appear in our firmament of letters, shining with greater lustre, contrasted with the darkness and ignorance by which they are surrounded; we may justly feel a national pride in that more general diffusion of intellectual light, which is radiating from every part, and to every part of the American republic.

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* The fifth edition of Eaton's Manual, lately presented to the public, contains all the American plants described by any authors, together with those collected by travellers in the western and northwestern parts of America.

LECTURE XLIII.

VIEW OF NATURE.

Natural History of a Strawberry Plant, from the writings of Bernardine St. Pierre.

THE present lecture will be chiefly devoted to a view of *Nature* exhibited in a very lively and interesting manner, by a writer of accurate observation and lively imagination; it can scarcely fail to give you some new ideas of the immensity of the works of God, even on this little globe of earth; which, compared with the creation, is as a particle of sand upon the sea shore.

The book from which we make this quotation, is called "Studies of Nature." The author thus commences his work.*

"Some years have elapsed, since I formed the design of composing a general History of Nature, in imitation of Aristotle, Pliny, Chancellor Bacon, and several illustrious modern authors. The field appeared to me so vast, that I could not believe the possibility of its being pre-occupied. Besides, Nature invites, to the cultivation of herself, persons of every age and country; and if she promises the golden harvest of discovery, only to men of genius, she reserves some gleanings, at least, for the simple and unlearned; for such especially, as like myself, are making a pause every step they advance, transported at the beauty of her divine productions.

"In Nature herself, alone, we must expect to find the laws of Nature; and we plunge into difficulty and distress, only in proportion as we deviate from these laws. To study Nature therefore, is to act the part of a good subject, and of a friend to humanity. I have employed in my researches, all the powers of reasoning I possess; and though my means may have been slender, I can say with truth, that I have not permitted a single day to pass, without picking up some agreeable or useful observation.

"I proposed to begin the composition of my work, when I had ceased from observing, and when I should have collected all the materials necessary to a History of Nature; but I found myself in the condition of the child, who, with a shell, had dug a hole in the sand, to hold the water of the ocean.

"Nature is of unbounded extent, and I am a human being, limited on every side. Not only her general history, but that of the smallest plant, far transcends my highest powers; permit me to relate, on what occasion I became sensible of this.

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* We make use of a translation of St. Pierre's Studies of Nature. As an apology for the length of the quotation here introduced, the author would remark, that the view thus taken of a particular object of Nature in its various relations, appeared well calculated to make an impression upon the youthful mind; it was impossible to have abridged the quotation in any considerable degree, without destroying its interest.

"One day in summer, while I was busied in the arrangement of some observations I had made, respecting the harmonies discoverable in this globe of ours, I perceived on a Strawberry plant, which had been accidentally placed in my window, some small winged insects, so very beautiful that I took a fancy to describe them. Next day a different sort appeared, which I proceeded likewise to describe. In the course of three weeks, no less than *thirty-seven species*, totally distinct, had visited my Strawberry plant. At length, they came in such crowds, and presented such varieties, that I was constrained to relinquish this study, though highly amusing, for want of leisure, and to acknowledge, for want of suitable expressions.

"The insects, which I had observed, were all distinguishable from each other, by their colours, their forms, and their motions: some of them shone like gold, others were of the colour of silver, and brass; some were spotted, some striped; they were blue, green, brown, and chesnut coloured. The heads of some, were rounded like a turban; those of others were drawn out in the figure of a cone; here it was dark as a tuft of black velvet, there it sparkled like a ruby.

"There was not less diversity in their wings; in some, they were long and brilliant, like transparent plates of mother of pearl; in others, short and broad, resembling net work of the finest gauze. Each had his particular manner of disposing and managing his wings: some disposed theirs perpendicularly, others horizontally; and they all seemed to take pleasure in displaying them. Some flew spirally, after the manner of butterflies, others sprang into the air, directing their flight in opposition to the wind, by a mechanism somewhat similar to that of a paper kite, which in rising, forms with the axis of the wind, an angle, I think, of twenty-two degrees and a half. Some alighted on the plant to deposit their eggs, others merely to shelter themselves from the sun. But the greatest part paid this visit from reasons totally unknown to me; some went and came in an incessant motion, while others moved only the hinder part of the body. A great many of them remained motionless, and were like me, perhaps, employed in making observations.

"I scorned to pay any attention, (as being already sufficiently known) to many other tribes of insects, which my Strawberry plant had attracted, such as the snail, which nestles under the leaves, the butter-fly, which flutters around, the beetle, which digs about its roots, the small worm, which contrives to live in the *parenchyma*, that is the mere thickness of a leaf, the wasp and honey bee, which hum around the blossoms, the gnat, which sucks of the juices of the stem, the ant, which licks up the gnat; and to make no longer enumeration, the spider, which in order to find a prey in these, one after another, distends his snares over the whole vicinity.

"However minute these objects may be, they surely merited my attention, as Nature* deemed them not unworthy of hers. Could I refuse them a place in my general history, when she had given them one in the system of the Universe? For a still stronger reason, had I written the history of my Strawberry plant, I must have given some account of the insects attached to it. Plants are the habitations of insects; and it is impossible to give the history of a city without saying something of its inhabitants. Besides, my Strawberry plant was not in its natural situation, in the open country, on the border of a wood, or by the brink of a rivulet, where it would have been frequented by many other species of living creatures. It was confined to an earthen pot, amidst the smoke of Paris: I observed it only in vacant moments. I know nothing of the insects which visited it in the course of the day, still less those which might come only in the night, attracted by simple emanations, or perhaps by a phosphoric light, which escapes our senses. I was totally ignorant of the various species which might frequent it at other seasons of the year, and the endless other relations which it might have with reptiles, with amphibious animals, fishes, birds, quadrupeds, and above all with *Man*, who undervalues every thing which he cannot convert to his own use.

"But it was not sufficient, if I may use the expression, to observe it from the heights of my greatness; for in this case, my knowledge would have been greatly inferior to that of one of the insects, who made it their habitation. Not one of them, on examining it, with his little spherical eyes,† but must have distinguished an infinite variety of objects, which I could not perceive without the assistance of a microscope, and after much laborious research. Nay, their eyes are inconceivably superior even to this instrument; for this shows us the objects only which are in its focus, that is, at the distance of a few lines, whereas they perceive by a mechanism of which we have no conception, those which are near, and those which are far off. Their eyes therefore, are, at once, microscopes and telescopes: besides, by their circular disposition round the head, they have the advantage of viewing the whole circuit of the heavens at the same instant, while the eye of the astronomer can take in at most, but the half. My winged insects, accordingly, must discern in the Strawberry plant, at a single glance, an arrangement and combination of parts, which assisted by the microscope, I can observe only separate from each other, and in succession.

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* St. Pierre here uses the term Nature, for the AUTHOR of Nature.

† It is said that by the aid of the solar microscope, *twenty-five hundred reflections* have been counted in the eye of the common house-fly.

"On examining the leaves of this vegetable with the aid of a lens, which had a small magnifying power, I found them divided into compartments, hedged round with bristles, separated by canals, and strewed with glands. These compartments appeared to me similar to large verdant enclosures, their bristles to vegetables of a particular order, of which some were upright, some inclined, some forked, some hollowed into tubes, from the extremity of which a liquid distilled; and their canals, as well as their glands, seemed full of a brilliant fluid. In plants of a different species, these bristles and these canals exhibit forms, colours, and fluids entirely different. There are even glands which resemble basons, round, square, or radiated.

"Now, nature has made nothing in vain. Wherever she has prepared a habitation she immediately peoples it. She is never straightened for want of room. She has placed animals furnished with fins in a single drop of water, and in such multitudes, that *Lewenhoeck*, the natural philosopher, reckoned up thousands of them. Many others after him have seen in one drop of water as small as a grain of millet, some 10, others 30, and some as many as 45 thousand.

"It is credible, then, from analogy, that there are animals feeding on the leaves of plants, like the cattle in our meadows, and on our mountains, which repose under the shade of a down imperceptible to the naked eye. Each part of the flower must present to them a spectacle of which we can form no idea. The yellow anthers of flowers, suspended by fillets of white, exhibit to their eyes double rafters of gold in equilibrio, or pillars fairer than ivory; the corolla an arch of unbounded magnitude, embellished with the ruby and the topaz, rivers of nectar and honey; the other parts of the flowret, cups, urns, pavilions, domes, which no human architect or goldsmith has yet learned to imitate.

"I do not speak thus from conjecture; for having examined one day by the microscope the flowers of the thyme, I distinguished in them with equal surprize and delight, superb flagons with a long neck, of a substance resembling amethyst, from the necks of which seemed to flow ingots of liquid gold. I have never made observation of the corolla of the smallest flower, without finding it composed of an admirable substance, half transparent, studded with brilliants, and shining in the most lively colours.

"The beings which live under a canopy thus enriched, must have ideas, very different from ours, of light, and of the other phenomena of Nature. A drop of dew filtering in the capillary and transparent tubes of a plant, presents, to them, thousands of cascades; the same drop, fixed as a wave on the extremity of one of its prickles, appears an ocean without a shore; evaporated into air, a vast aërial sea. They must, therefore, see fluids ascending, instead of falling; assuming a globular form, instead of sinking to a level; and mounting into the air, instead of obeying the power of gravity.

"Their ignorance must be as wonderful as their knowledge. As they have a thorough acquaintance with the harmony of only the minutest objects, that of vast objects must escape them. They know not, undoubtedly, that there are men; and among these, learned men, who know every thing, who can explain every thing, who, transient like themselves, plunge into an infinity on the ascending scale, in which they are lost; whereas they, the insects, in virtue of their littleness, are acquainted with an opposite infinity, in the minute divisions of time and matter.

"In these ephemerous beings, we must find the youth of a single morning, and the decrepitude of one day. If they possess historical monuments, they must have their months, years, ages, and epochs, proportioned to the duration of a flower; they must have a chronology different from ours, as their hydraulics and optics must differ. Thus, in proportion as man brings the elements of *Nature* near him, the principles of his *Science* disappear.

"Such, therefore, must have been my Strawberry plant, and its natural inhabitants, in the eyes of my winged insects, which had alighted to visit it; but though I had been able to acquire, with them, an intimate knowledge of this new world, I was still very far from the history of it. I must have previously studied its relations to the other parts of Nature; to the sun which expands its blossoms, to the winds which sow its seeds over and over, to the brooks whose banks it forms and embellishes. I must have known, how it was preserved in winter, during a cold capable of cleaving stones asunder; and how it should appear verdant in the Spring, without any pains employed to preserve it from the frost; how, feeble, and crawling along the ground, it should be able to find its way, from the deepest valleys to the summit of the Alps; to traverse the Globe from north to south, from mountain to mountain, forming on its passage, a thousand charming pieces of chequered work, of its fair flowers, and rose coloured fruit, with the plants of every other climate; how it has been able to scatter itself from the mountains of Cashmere to Archangel, and from Norway to Kamtschatka; how in a word, we find it in equal abundance, in the continent of America, though an infinite number of animals, are making incessant and universal war upon it, and no gardener is at the trouble to sow it again.

"Supposing all this knowledge acquired, I should still have arrived no farther than at the history of the *genus*, and not that of the *species*. The *varieties would yet remain unknown*; which have each its particular character according as they have flowers *single*, in *pairs*, or *disposed* in *clusters*; according to the colour, the smell, and the taste of the fruit; according to the size, the figure, the edging, the smoothness or the downy clothing of their leaves. One of our most celebrated botanists, has found, in the environs of Paris alone, five distinct species, three of which bear flowers without producing fruit.* In our gardens, we cultivate at least twelve different sorts of foreign strawberries; that of Chili, of Peru, the Alpine, the Swedish, &c. But how many varieties are there, to us, totally unknown. Has not every degree of latitude a species peculiar to itself? Is it not presumable, that there may be trees which produce strawberries, as there are those which bear peas and French beans? May we not consider as a near relative of the strawberry, the numerous species of the raspberry, and of the bramble, with which it has a very striking analogy, from the shape of its leaves; from its shoots, which creep along the ground, and replant themselves; from the rose form of its flowers, and the appearance of its fruit, the seeds of which are on the out side? Has it not, besides, an affinity with the eglantine and the rose tree, as to the flower; with the mulberry, as to the fruit; and with the trefoil itself, as to the leaves; one species of which, common in the environs of Paris, bears likewise, its seeds aggregated into the form of a strawberry, bearing trefoil, from which it derives its botanical name, of TRIFOLIUM *fragiferum*, the *strawberry bearing trefoil?* Now, if we reflect, that all these species, varieties, analogies, and affinities, have, in every particular latitude, necessary relations, with a multitude of animals, and that these relations are altogether unknown to us, we shall find, that a complete history of the strawberry plant would be ample employment for all the Naturalists in the world.

"What a task then, would it be, to write the history in like manner, of all the species of vegetables, scattered over the face of the whole earth?"

The author, thus finding the impossibility of particularizing all the works of God, as exhibited upon the face of the earth, rests satisfied with attempting to give such general views, illustrating them by examples, as appeared to him most striking and important. He thus concludes what he terms his first "Study of Nature."

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* It is strange that this author should have imagined, at the period in which he wrote, that any species of Strawberry existed which did not bear fruit, unless he supposed the flower to be Diœcious, and in that case, he could not have said that the species did not bear fruit, but that some flowers of the species did not; but this elegant writer, disclaimed too much the assistance of artificial methods of classification; he often erred through the brilliancy of his fancy, which not unfrequently blinded his judgment.

"The rich and the great imagine, that every one is miserable, and out of the world, who does not live as they do; but they are the persons who, living far from nature and from God, live out of the world. Misled by the prejudices of a faulty education, I have pursued a vain felicity amid the false glories of arms, the favour of the great,* and sometimes in frivolous and dangerous pleasures. I have never been happy but when I trusted in God; opposed to THEE, the AUTHOR of all things! power is weakness! supported by THEE, weakness becomes strength! When the rude Northern blasts have ravaged the earth, THOU callest forth the feeblest of winds; at the sound of THY voice, the zephyr breathes, the verdure revives, the gentle cowslip and the humble violet cover the bosom of the bleak earth with a mantle of gold and purple."

To the pious reflections of this French writer we will add the following quotation from an English author,† the energies of whose rich and cultivated intellect were devoted to the cause of religion; who viewed nature as a philosopher, but what is far better, as a christian. Happy, indeed, are those in whom philosophy and christianity are blended, and delightful is the intercourse even in this world between minds thus enlightened and purified!

"There is peculiar sweetness in the recollection of those hours which we have spent with friends of a kindred spirit, amidst the beauties of created nature. The christian can alone find that congeniality in associates, who not only possess a lively and cultivated sense of the high beauty which landscape scenery presents to the eye, but who can also see creation's God in every feature of the prospect. The painter can imitate, the poet describe, and the tourist talk with ecstacy of the sublime and beautiful objects which constitute the scene before him. But he can only be said to enjoy them aright, whose talents, taste, and affections are consecrated to the glory of *Him* by whom 'all things were made, and without whom was not any thing made that was made.' When the pencil that traces the rich and animated landscape of mountains, lakes, and trees, is guided by a grateful heart as well as by a skilful hand; then the picture becomes no less an acceptable offering to God, than it is a source of well directed pleasure to the mind of man. And when the poet, in harmonious numbers, makes hill and dale responsive to his song, happy is it if his soul be in unison with the harp of David, and if he can call on all created nature to join in one universal chorus of gratitude and praise. The christian traveller best enjoys scenes like these. In every wonder he sees the hand that made it—

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* St. Pierre is said to have been a favourite with his Sovereign, Louis XVI. His "Studies of nature," were published in 1784.

† Rev. Legh Richmond.

in every landscape, the beauty that adorns it—in rivers, fields, and forests the Providence that ministers to the wants of man—in every surrounding object he sees an emblem of his own spiritual condition, himself a stranger and a pilgrim, journeying on through a country of wonders and beauties; alternately investigating, admiring, and praising the works of his Maker, and anticipating a holy and happy eternity to be spent in the Paradise of God, where the prospects are ever new, and the landscapes never fade from the sight!"

"O! for the expanded mind that soars on high,
Ranging afar with Meditation's eye!
That climbs the heights of yonder starry road,
Rising through nature up to nature's God.

O! for a soul to trace a Saviour's power,
In each sweet form that decks the blooming flower;
And as we wander such fair scenes among,
To make the Rose of Sharon all our song."

LECTURE XLIV.

General View of Nature—Organized and Inorganized Bodies—Classification of Animals.

Having viewed the vegetable kingdom under various aspects, we will, before closing our course of study, take a general view of that external world of matter, of which the part we have examined, extended and diversified as it is, makes up but a small portion.

By the word *Nature,* derived from a term signifying born, or produced, in a general sense we mean all the works of God. Using a figure of speech called *Metonomy,* we often put the effect for the cause; as when we speak of the "works of nature," meaning what the Almighty has brought forth, or we often mean by nature the Deity himself: as when we say that nature produces plants and animals.

With respect to the heavenly bodies, which manifest themselves to us with so much magnificence, we know them to be matter, because we observe them to be subject to the laws which govern matter; and we have been able, by the discoveries of astronomers, to understand their various revolutions; we have in general clearer ideas of their motions than even of our own planet; it is more easy for us to imagine them as moving, than that our firm earth is whirling with inconceivable velocity. Were it possible for us to conceive the quantity of matter which even one world as large as our sun contains, the thought would be overwhelming; and of all the worlds which we behold at one view in a serene night, what finite being could imagine their united extent? They are suspended over our heads, each one pursuing its destined course; why do we not fear that some one may be precipitated upon our little world, and crush it to atoms? It is because we know that they are all upheld by that Power which "created the heavens and the earth," and who governs the universe by regular laws. This universe is infinite as the God who formed it; our sun, with all its systems, is but a point lost in immensity. Astronomers have proved that the fixed stars are at such an immense distance from us, that moving at the rate of 500 miles an hour, we we should not reach the nearest of them in 700,000 years, a distance more than 200,000 times greater than that of the sun from the earth. The same space probably separates all the fixed stars. Around those stars revolve millions of opaque globes, as our earth revolves around the sun, which is also one of the fixed stars. The satellites describe around the primary planets almost circular orbits; they are carried with their primaries around the sun in their annual motion; the sun himself, with all his numerous train of primary planets, each with their satellites, revolves around the common centre of gravity of the fixed stars, of which himself constitutes a part; and these are supposed to revolve around the centre of the universe. Here may be the throne of the Almighty Creator and Director of all these stupendous objects.

Yet we need not fear that we shall be forgotten in the immensity of creation; the same Being who created and rules the host of heaven, made the little moss and the lilies of the field, which are so beautifully arrayed. If God condescends to care for them, he will not neglect us who are made in his own image, and destined to an immortal existence.

Turning our thoughts from the heavenly host to our own little globe, and considering the matter which exists upon it, we find two great classes of substances: 1st, *inorganized*, and 2d, *organized*.

The 1st *class of substances*, viz: such as are *inorganized*, comprehends all matter destitute of a living principle; such as *fluids*, *gases*, and *minerals*. The particles which compose them are entirely subject to chemical and mechanical laws.

The *2d class*, viz: *organized* substances, includes animals and vegetables; the particles constituting them are in a perpetual state of motion; they are supported by air and food, endowed with life, and subject to death; the active power or life which operates in them we call the *vital principle*. This vital principle eludes the researches of man; all that we know of it is in its effects, enabling the organized body to resist putrefaction, and, to a certain degree, to maintain a temperature different from surrounding bodies. Deprived of this vital principle, both animals and vegetables become subject to chemical decomposition; their solid parts are dissolved, and they return to the earth from whence they were taken.

If you dig up a stone, and remove it from one place to another, it will suffer no alteration; if you dig up a plant it will wither and die. If you break a mineral to pieces, every fragment will be a perfect specimen of its kind, it will only be altered in shape and size; but if you tear off a branch from a plant, or if a limb is taken from an animal, they will both immediately begin to decay; the vital principle being extinguished, putrefaction and dissolution follow.

We should never have been able to predict, from the appearances of the stone, the plant, and animal, that they were thus differently constituted; by observation we find, that the production and mode of growth, has been under different circumstances. We find that the stone has grown by a gradual accumulation of particles, independent of each other, and can only be destroyed by chemical or mechanical force; the plant and animal, have on the contrary, grown by nourishment, been possessed of parts mutually dependent, and contributing to the existence of each other.

So far, our observation teaches us the distinction between organized and inorganized beings; though it does not teach us in what this internal power or life consists. God permits us to know much, in order to lead us to industry in the attainment of knowledge; but he places boundaries beyond which we may not pass, that we may be humble.

Having considered the distinction between inorganic and organic substances, we will proceed to a division which may be more familiar to you; that by which the matter upon our globe is ranged under three kingdoms; the ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, and MINERAL.

We find it somewhat difficult to draw a line of distinction between the different kinds of organized beings, viz. animals and vegetables; the lines of distinction often seem to fade so gradually, that we cannot well decide where the animal ends and the vegetable begins.

This idea may seem at first somewhat strange, you may perhaps never have been at a loss to tell an animal from a vegetable; you would certainly know how to distinguish between a nightingale and a rose, or between an ox and an oak; but these are animals and vegetables in their perfect state.

The animal you see has the power to move about, to seek the nourishment most agreeable; you perceive it uttering audible sounds, possessing sensation and apparent consciousness. The plant on the contrary is confined to a particular spot, having no other nourishment than substances which themselves come in contact with it; exhibiting no consciousness, nor to common observation any sensation. It is only, when we examine with close attention, the various phenomena in the vegetable and animal kingdoms, that we learn to doubt, as to the exact boundaries by which they are separated.

The division of nature into three kingdoms, animal, vegetable and mineral, is very ancient, and appears at first to be clear and precise.

Minerals destitute of life increase by the accumulation of new particles.

Vegetables grow, produce seeds which contain the elements of future plants like themselves, and then die.

Animals unite to the properties of vegetables, the feeling of their own existence; or as Linnæus has said, "*Stones grow, vegetables grow* and *live, animals grow, live*, and *feel*." Although this simple view of the works of creation is pleasing, it is not satisfactory; because we are not able to decide where in the vast series of organized beings, sensation ceases.

That you may the better understand what is meant by the gradations in animal life, we will present you with a sketch of the classification of animals. The study of this department of nature you have already been told is termed Zoology.

A very general and simple classification of animals is as follows:—

"VERTEBRAL, animals having backbones.

AVERTEBRAL, animals destitute of backbones.

VERTEBRAL animals are divided into,

1. *Quadrupeds*. The science of which has no popular name. It includes four-footed animals; as ox, dog, mouse.

2. *Birds*. The science of which is called *ornithology*. It includes the feathered tribe; as pigeon, goose, wren.

3. *Amphibious Animals*. The science of which is called *amphibiology*. It includes those cold-blooded animals which are capable of living on dry land, or in the water; as tortoise, lizard, serpent, frog.

4. *Fishes*. The science of which is called *ichthyology*. It includes all aquatic animals which have gills and fins; as shad, trout, sturgeon, eel.

AVERTEBRAL animals are divided into,

5. *Insects*. The science of which is called *entomology*. It includes all animals with jointed bodies, which have jointed limbs; as flies, spiders, lobsters.

6. *Vermes*. The science of which is called *herminthology*. It includes all soft animals of the avertebral division, which have no jointed limbs, with or without hard coverings; as angle worms, snails, oysters, polypi, and infusory animals."*

The system of Zoology most approved, is the one taught by Linnæus, with some improvements made by the great French naturalist, Cuvier; according to this mode of classification, the animal kingdom is divided into four grand divisions, viz:—

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* Eaton's Zoology.

VERTEBRAL, MOLLUSCOUS, ARTICULATED, and RADIATED. These are subdivided into classes and orders.

First Grand Division—Vertebral Animals.

CLASS I. *Mammalia*, or such as at first are nourished by milk. This class have lungs, and peculiar organs for imbibing their food, during their first stage of existence.

The *First Order* is called *Bi-mani*, (from *bis* two, *mani* hands;) this order includes *man* only; we find here no generic or specific differences, but the following varieties.

1st. *Caucasian* race, anciently inhabiting the country about the Caspian and Black Seas, from whom we are descended.

2d. The *Mongolian*, the ancient inhabitants about the Pacific Ocean, from whom the Chinese are descended.

3d. The *Ethiopian*, or Negro race.

In the next order to man is placed the *Quadru-mani*, from *quatuor* four, and *mani* hands.) These have thumbs, or toes separate, on each of the four feet. We here find the Orang-outang, (sometimes called the wild-man,) and the Monkey.

The *Third Order* contains *Carniverous* animals, or *flesh-feeders*, having no separate thumbs, or great toes without nails; as the Dog and Cat.

The *Fourth Order* contains the *Gnawers*, having no canine teeth, (those which are called eye-teeth,) feeding almost wholly on vegetable substances; as the Rat and Squirrel.

The *Fifth Order* is *Edentata*, or animals wanting teeth; as the Sloth and Armadillo.

The *Sixth Order*, *Pachyderma*, thick skin animals with hoofs; as the Elephant, Horse, and Hog.

The *Seventh Order* contains the *Ruminating* animals, such as chew the cud, having front teeth (incisors) below, only, and feet with the hoofs cloven, or divided; as the Ox, Sheep, and Camel.

The *Eighth Order*, *Cete*, contains aquatic animals, (such as live in water,) having no kind of feet, or whose feet are fin-like-limbs; as the Whale and Dolphin.

We have enumerated all the orders of the class Mammalia, as it is the one in which man is placed; we shall now notice the remaining classes of animals, without going into so minute a detail of their orders.

CLASS II. Contains *Birds*, (*Aves*,) which are distinguished by having the body covered with feathers and down, long naked jaws, two wings formed for flight, and bi-ped (from *bis* two, and *pedes* feet.) The orders in this class, are chiefly distinguished from each other by the peculiar make of the bill and feet.

Class III. Contains *Reptiles*, (*Reptila.*) It is divided into four orders;

1st. With shells over their back, and four feet; as the Tortoise and Turtle.

2d. Covered with scales, and having four feet; as the Crocodile and Lizard.

3d. Body naked, destitute of feet; as Serpents and Snakes.

4th. The body naked, and having two, or four feet; as the Frog and Toad.

Class IV. Contains *Fishes*, (*Pisces*,) natives of the water, unable to exist for any length of time out of it: swift in their motions, and voracious in their appetites; breathing by means of gills, which are generally united in a long arch; swimming by means of radiate fins, and mostly covered with scales.

Second Grand Division.

Class V. *Molluscous*, bodies soft, without bones, but their muscles attached to a skin which forms a calcareous covering called a shell, and is in many cases, produced from their skin. These animals possess no organs of sense, but those of taste and sight, and these are often wanting; the Nautilus and Cuttle fish are of the highest order of Molluscous animals.

One order contains animals without heads, having a shell usually of two pieces, these are called bi'valves; as the Oyster, Clam, and Snail.

Third Grand Division.

We proceed next to those *animals called Articulated*, these have jointed trunks, and mostly jointed limbs. They possess the faculties of changing place; (locomotion;) some have feet and others are destitute of them, and move by trailing along their bodies.

Class VI. *Annelida*, contains such animals as have red blood, without a bony skeleton; bodies soft and long, covering divided into transverse rings, living mostly in water; some of them secrete calcareous matter which forms a hard covering, or shell; as the Earth, or Angle Worm, and Leech.

Class VII. *Crustaceous*, contains animals without blood, with jointed limbs fastened to a calcareous crust; they breathe by a kind of gills.

Class VIII. *Arachnida*, contains animals without blood, jointed limbs, without horns; they breathe by little openings, which lead to organs resembling lungs, or by little pipes distributed over the whole body; these do not pass through any important change of state as insects do, they have mostly six or eight eyes, and eight feet, and feed chiefly on living animals; examples of this class are the Spider and Scorpion.

Class ix. *Insecta*, or insects, without blood, having jointed limbs and horns; they breathe by two pipes, running parallel to each other, through the whole body; they have two horns; they are mostly winged, having one or two pairs, a few are without wings; mostly with six feet. They possess all the senses which belong to any class of animals, except that of hearing. The winged insects pass through several changes or metamorphoses.

The Butterfly, is first an *egg;* this when hatched is long and cylindrical, and divided into numerous rings, having many short legs, jaws, and several small eyes; this is the *larvar* commonly called caterpillar. At length it casts off its skin and appears in another form without limbs. It neither takes nourishment, moves, nor gives any signs of life; this is called *chrys'alis.* At length, by examining it closely, the imperfect form of the butterfly may be seen through the envelope; this it soon bursts, and a *perfect butterfly* appears. When about to pass into the chrys'alis state, of which they seem to have warning, the insect selects some place where it may repose safely during its temporary death.* The Silk worm spins its silken web to wrap itself in, and this web is that, from which all our silks are made.

Fourth Grand Division.—Radiated Animals.

Class x. *Zo'ophites*, here we find the lowest beings in the animal kingdom. Some of the orders in this class contain animals which have neither heart, brains, nerves, nor any apparent means of breathing. These are sometimes called animal plants; many of them, as the *corals*, are fixed to rocks and never change place; others, as the *Sea-anemone*, grow upon rocks, having a kind of stem, like a flower; some are attached by a kind of root to the bottom of the sea; some, as the *Sea-nettle*, which appears like the segment of a circle, are carried about by the motion of the waters, without any voluntary motion; among these are the Sea-daisy, the Sea Marygold, and the Sea Carnation, so named from an apparent resemblance to those plants. We find here the *Sea-fan*, the *Sea-pen*, the *Madrepore*, the latter of which are often thrown together in such quantities, as to form islands of coral, and to block up the entrance into harbours. The Sponge also belongs to this class of strange animal substances; this consists of a fibrous mass, which, when fresh, contains a kind of substance like jelly, which discovers a slight sensation when touched; this is the only sign of life which it manifests.

These animals resemble plants in their manner of producing others; they form a species of germ, like the bud growing up on the stalk, this falls off from the stem, and becomes a perfect animal. If a part of one of those animals is separated from the rest, it will itself, be as perfect a living animal as was the whole before. A Polypus can be divided into as many animals as it contains atoms; some of this order are very properly called Hydras, (many headed.) Besides these, there is another order of animal substances: *Infusoria,* which appear like a homogeneous mass, having no appearance of any limbs whatever; these are either angular, oval, or globular.

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* May not this be considered as a lesson to man to anticipate and provide for the change in his existence, which his bodily infirmities, and his daily observation, teach him is to be his own lot.

After this examination of the animal kingdom, we are prepared to return to the consideration of the distinction between vegetables and animals. You now perceive that although you might have no hesitation to determine which was animal, and which vegetable, between a nightingale and a rose, that between a polypus or coral, and a mushroom or a collection of mould, it would be somewhat difficult to fix upon any distinctive characters, which should place the two first in the animal, and the two last in the vegetable kingdom.

LECTURE XLV.

Man at the head of the Kingdoms of Nature.—Comparison between Animals and Plants.

In our last lecture, after a glance upward to the heavenly bodies, we returned to our globe, and considered its various substances; here we found two classes of bodies, inorganized and organized substances; the former including minerals, the latter embracing the animal and vegetable kingdoms. We then took a brief view of the animal creation.

At the head of the animal kingdom we found man, sufficiently resembling brute animals in his material frame to constitute a part of an extensive class, embracing the ape, the elephant, and the dog; yet between the lowest degree of intelligence in the human race, and the highest faculties of brutes, there is a line of distinction marked by the hand of the Almighty, in characters too obvious for doubt. God said "let us make man in our own image, and he breathed into him the breath of life, and man became a living *soul.*"

Some writers have attempted to show that man differs only from the inferior order of animals in possessing a greater variety of instincts.* But however wonderful may appear the *instinctive perceptions* of brutes, they are destitute of reason, and incapable of being the subjects of moral government; we must, therefore, both from our own observation, and the declarations of scripture, infer, that the faculties of man differ not in *degree* only, but distinctly *in their nature*, from those of all other beings upon our globe.

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* This is asserted by Smellie, in his "Philosophy."

Man, (says Buffon,) by his form and the perfection of his organs, and as the only being on earth endowed with reason, seems properly placed at the head of the kingdoms of nature. All in man announces him the lord of the earth; his form marks his superiority over all living beings; he stands erect, in the attitude of command, he can gaze upon the heavens; on his face is imprinted the character of dignity; the image of his soul is painted upon his features, and the excellence of his nature penetrates through his material organs, and animates the expression of his countenance.

In the orders of animals next to man, we find the external senses of sight, touch, taste, and smell, equally perfect as those possessed by him, and, in some cases, they are even more acute; but as we proceed downwards through the gradations of animal existence, we perceive the number and acuteness of the senses to diminish; we find some beings with but four senses, others with three, with two, and lastly in the Zoophites, with only a sensibility to touch, and that so faintly exhibited as almost to lead us to doubt its existence.

Let us, after these observations, return to the distinction between animals and vegetables. You now perceive that although you would find no difficulty with regard to a nightingale and a rose, to discover to which of the kingdoms of nature they belong; yet, with respect to a polypus or coral, and a mushroom or a lichen, it would be somewhat difficult, without a previous knowledge of their classification, to say which is called animal, and which vegetable, or to give the distinctions between them. We have seen that the polypus may be increased by cutting shoots and engrafting them upon other animals, in the same manner as vegetables may be increased.

With respect to sensation, some plants discover this, apparently even in a greater degree, than some of the last orders of animals; the *sensitive plant* shrinks from the touch; the *Dionea* suddenly closes its leaves upon the insect which touches them; the leaves of plants follow the direction of light, in order to present their upper surfaces to its influence; this you can observe in flower pots placed by a window. The seeds of a plant, in whatever situation it may be placed in the earth, always sends its root downwards, and its stem upwards; in these cases, does there not seem as much appearance of sensation and instinct, and even more than in the lower orders of animals?

We find then, that the possession, or want of instinct, does not constitute a mark of distinction between animals and plants. Some have attempted to draw a line of distinction, by considering, that locomotion, or the power of changing place, belongs to animals only; but this seems to fail, since we find animals fixed to the bottom of the sea, or growing upon rocks, and plants moving upon the surface of the water.

Another mark of distinction, has been given, in the supposed presence of nitrogen in animals, detected by a smell of phosphorus when animal substances are burning, similar to what we perceive in the combustion of bones; but nitrogen has also been discovered in some vegetables.

It appears then from a comparison between animals and vegetables, that these beings are closely connected by the essential characters of organization; that it seems impossible to distinguish them by any trait that belongs exclusively to either; that the connexion between them, appears most striking in the least perfect species of both kingdoms; and that as we recede from this point, the differences become more numerous and more marked. We may illustrate this view, by imagining two ascending chains of beings, rising from one common point, each side of the chain, becoming more and more unlike in proportion to the intervening distance from the centre. From this same central point, also proceeds the chain of inorganized substances, some imperfect animals resembling plants in their outward form, and others resembling minerals in their hard and calcareous coverings.

Having thus learned the almost imperceptible gradations, by which the animal and vegetable kingdoms are blended, we must in stating the important differences, which exist between animals and plants, consider these imperfect species of both kinds, as exceptions to any general rule, and confine ourselves to perfect animals and plants.

1st. With respect to the elements which compose them; carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, form the base of vegetable substances; animals exhibit the same elements with this important distinction, that carbon prevails in plants and nitrogen in animals.

2d. They differ in their food; plants are nourished with inorganized matter, absorbing with water, the various substances which this liquid holds in solution; animals are mostly nourished either by vegetables or other animals.

3d. Plants throw off oxygen gas, and inhale carbonic acid; animals in respiration inhale oxygen gas, and throw off carbonic acid.

4th. Although plants and animals both possess a principle of life, it is in the one case much more limited than in the other; exhibiting itself in plants by a feeble power, of contraction or irritability; in animals appearing in sensation, muscular movement and voluntary motion.

We might trace a great variety of analogies between even the most perfect plants and animals, but we must not extend our remarks farther upon this part of our subject.

Inorganic bodies form the solid base of the globe. *Minerals* are spread upon the face of the earth or lie buried beneath its surface. They form vast masses of rocks, chains of mountains, and the ground upon which we tread. The *Water* occupies a still greater surface of the earth than the land; it is filled with life and animation; the treasures and wonders of the deep seem almost unbounded. The *Air*, lighter than earth and water, extending on all sides about forty miles in height, surrounds the whole globe, separating us from the unknown elements which exist beyond it. Among the inorganized substances upon our globe, is *Heat* or *Caloric*, the subtle fluid which pervades all matter, in an increasing proportion from solids to fluids, and from fluids to gases; and *Light*, which reflects its hues from terrestrial objects, producing by the decomposition of its rays, all the beautiful variety of colouring. The laws which govern these two substances, so extended in their existence, and so various in their operations, are explained in the sciences of Chemistry and Optics.

Wherever we turn our eyes, we behold wonders; "if we go up to Heaven, God is there;" "the firmament showeth forth his handy work;" if we contemplate the earth on which we are placed, and all its varied tribes of beings, with the inorganized substances formed for their comfort and subsistence, we realize, that "even the hairs of our head are all numbered," and that it is indeed God, "who maketh the grass to grow upon the mountains, and herbs for the use of man."

CONCLUSION.

The Universe, how vast! exceeding far,
The bounds of human thought; millions of suns
With their attendant worlds, moving around
Some common centre, gravitation strange!
Beyond the thought of finite minds to scan.
Can He, who in the highest heav'n sublime,
Enthron'd in glory, guides these mighty orbs,
Can He behold this little spot of earth,
Lost midst the grandeur of the heav'nly host?
Can God bestow one thought on fall'n man?
  Turn, child of ignorance and narrow views,
Thy wilder'd sight, from off these dazzling scenes;
Turn to thy earth and trace the wonders there.
Who pencils, with variegated shade,
The lowly flower, that decks the rippling stream,
Or gorgeously attires the lily race?
Who with attentive care, each year provides,
A germ to renovate the fading plant,
And gives soft show'rs, and vivifying warmth;
Kindling within the embryo inert,
The little spark of life, unseen by all,
Save him who gave it, and with care preserved?
Who teaches, when this principle of life
Thus animated, swells the germ within,
And bursts its tomb, rising to light and air;
Who teaches root and stem to find their place,
Each one to seek its proper element?
  Who gilds the insects wings and leads it forth
To feast on sweets, and bask in sunny ray?
None could the life of plant or insect give;
Save God alone, He rules and watches all;
Scorns not the least of all His works; much less
Man, made in his image, destin'd to exist,
When e'en yon brilliant worlds shall cease to be.
Then how should man rejoicing in his God,
Delight in His perfections, shadow'd forth
In every little flow'r, and blade of grass!
Each opening bud, and care perfected seed,
Is as a page, where we may read of God.

NOTE.

In the annexed descriptions of genera and species, care has been taken to select such plants as may be most easily obtained for purposes of analysis; for this reason most of the common exotics have been admitted; as flowers from the garden may often be at hand, when circumstances would render inconvenient the collection of wild plants.

The selection of genera and species is wholly from Eaton's Manual, and chiefly made for this work by Professor Eaton himself.

BOTANICAL DISTRICTS.

Eaton considers North America as divided into *two botanical districts, northern and southern.* The dividing line to be drawn from the mouth of Delaware river, (N. Lat. 39°, W. Lon. 75°,) to the south end of Lake Michigan, (N. Lat. 41° 31′); leaving in the northern division all Pennsylvania, and the north part of Delaware, Maryland, and Ohio. The division line, thus rises as we go towards the west, because southern plants extend to higher latitudes on the western side of the Allegany range, than on the eastern side.

The northern district is divided into *eastern* and *western,* by a line drawn from the intersection of the Allegany range and the Potomac river, in the direction of Cayuga lake. The Allegany mountain is the dividing line in the southern district.

Explanation of figures, letters and characters used in the Generic and Specific descriptions.

NUMBERS.

The *first number* following the generic description, is the number of the natural order of Linnæus, to which the genus belongs; the *second number* is that of Jussieu. The *first number* on the *left* of the generic name, is the number of the artificial class to which it belongs; the *second,* of the artificial order; the *first* on the *right,* is the number of the natural order of Linnæus; the *second,* of Jussieu.

LETTERS.

E and *W* are used to denote that the plant is found in the *eastern* or *western* division of either of the districts.

S, at the end of a description, shows that the plant grows in the *southern* as well as northern district.

O, (omnibus locis,*) indicates that the plant is common to the whole district.

A, (alpine,) indicates that the plant is most common on mountains, or elevated places.

L, (littoribus,†) indicates that the plant is most common at or near shores.

COLOURS OF COROLLAS.

r. red—p. purple—y. yellow—w. white—b. blue—g. green.

TIME OF FLOWERING.

Ap. April—M. May—J. June—Ju. July—Au. August—S. September—Oc. October.

DURATION, &C.

⊙ annual—♂ biennial—♃ perennial—♄ woody.

ACCENT AND QUANTITY.

The marks over the generic and specific names, have reference, not only to the *syllable which is to be accented*, but to the *quantity of the vowel* in the accented syllable, as either *long* or *short*.

Those syllables over which the *single mark* is placed, have the *vowel* pronounced *long*, as in *Fra-ga′-ri-a*: those, over which the *double mark* is placed, have the *vowel* pronounced *short*, as in *He-pat″-i-ca*; in the latter case, the stress of voice seems thrown upon the consonant, the two marks may, therefore be considered as indicating that the consonant, as well as vowel is accented.

The general rule respecting words of two syllables is simple, and renders it unnecessary to prefix to such words the marks for accent and quantity.

Words of *two syllables* always have the *accent* on the *first*; if the syllable *end with a vowel it is long*, as in *Cro′-cus*; if it *end with a consonant it is short*, as in *Cac″-tus*.

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* Literally translated, *in all places*.

† By shores.

GENERA OF PLANTS.

CLASS I. MONANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

Salicor″nia. Calyx inflated, entire, 3 or 4-sided, obconic: corolla 0; style 2-cleft: seed 1, enclosed in the calyx. 12. 29—(samphire.) *S.*

Hippu′ris. Calyx superior, obsolete, with a 2-lobed margin: corolla 0: seed 1: stigma simple: style in the groove of the anther. 15. 88—(marestail.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Blitum. Calyx 3-cleft, or 3-parted, berry-like: corolla 0: seed 1, immersed in the calyx. 12. 29—(blite.)

CLASS II. DIANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Corolla* 1-*petalled, inferior, regular: seeds in a drupe or nut.*

Ligus″trum. Calyx 4-toothed: corolla with 4 ovate divisions: berry 1 or 2-celled, 2 or 4-seeded. 44. 37—(prim.)

Exotics.

Jas″minum. Corolla salver-form, 5 to 8 cleft: berry 2-seeded, each seed solitary, arilled. 44. 37—(jasmine.)

Syrin″ga. Corolla salver-form: capsule 2-celled. 44. 37—(lilac.)

B. *Corolla* 1-*petalled, inferior, irregular; seeds in capsules.*

Veron″ica. Calyx 4-parted: corolla cleft into 4 lobes, lower division smaller: capsule obcordate, few-seeded, 2-celled. 40. 35—(speedwell.) S.

Catal″pa. Corolla 4 or 5-cleft, somewhat inflated, bell-form: calyx 2-parted or 2-leaved: stigma 2-lipped: capsule cylindric, 2-celled. 40. 45—(catalpa tree.) *S.*

C. *Corolla* 1-*petalled, inferior, irregular; seeds naked.*

Monar″da. Calyx cylindric, striated, 5-toothed: corolla ringent, tubular, upper lip lance-linear, involving the filaments, lower lip reflexed, 3-lobed. 42. 39—(Oswego tea, mountain-mint.) *S.*

Sal″via. Calyx tubular, striated, 2 lipped, under lip 2 to 3-toothed, lower lip 2-cleft: corolla ringent: filaments transversely or laterally affixed to a pedicel. 42. 39—(sage.) *S.*

Collinso′nia. Calyx tubular, 2-lipped, upper lip 3-toothed: corolla funnel-form, unequal, under lip many-cleft, capillary: one perfect seed. 42. 39—(horse-balm.) *S.*

Exotic.

Rosmari′nus. Corolla ringent, upper lip 2-parted: filaments long, curved, simple, with a tooth. 42. 39—(rosemary.)

D. *Corolla superior.*

Circæ′a. Calyx 2-leaved or 2-parted: corolla 2-petalled: capsule hispid, 2-celled, not gaping; cells 1 or 2 seeded. 48. 88—(enchanter's nightshade.) *S.*

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Anthoxan″thum. Calyx glume 2-valved, 1-flowered: corolla glume 2-valved, acuminate, awned near the base. 4. 10—(sweet vernal grass.) *S.*

CLASS III. TRIANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers Superior.*

Iris. Calyx spatha 2 or 3-valved: corolla 6-parted, divisions alternately reflexed: stigmas 3, petal-like: style short: capsule 3-celled. 6. 18—(flower-de-luce, iris or flag.) *S.*

Exotic.

Crocus. Spatha radical: corolla funnel form, with a long slender tube: stigma deep-gashed, crested. 6. 18—(saffron.)

Southern.

Ix″ia. Spatha 2 or 3-valved, ovate, short: corolla 6-parted or 6-petalled; sometimes tubular: stamens strait or incurved: stigmas sub-filiform. 6. 18.

B. *Flowers inferior.*

Commeli′na. Spatha cordate; perianth 3-leaved: corolla 3-petalled subequal: 3 barren filaments—sometimes the whole 6 filaments bear anthers: stigma simple: nectaries 3, cross-form, inserted on peculiar filaments: capsule sub-globose, 3-celled, cells 2-seeded or empty. 6. 13—(day flower.) *S.*

Xyris. Calyx a cartilaginous glume, 2 or 3-valved, in a head: corolla 3-petalled, equal, crenate: capsule 3-valved, many-seeded. 6. 13—(yellow-eyed-grass.) *S.*

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

A. *Spikelets 1-flowered: corollas without abortive rudiments of flowers at the base.*

Exotic.

Sac″charum. Calyx involucred with long wool at the base, 2-valved: corolla 1 or 2 valved: stamens 1 to 3. 4. 10—(sugar-cane.)

(*Calyx and corolla of similar texture—flowers in spreading panicles.*)

Agros″tis. Calyx herbaceous, 2-valved, 1-flowered, valves acute; a little less than the corolla: corolla 2-valved, membranaceous, often hairy at the base: stigmas longitudinally hispid or plumose, florets spreading: nectary lateral: seed coated. 4. 10—(redtop.) *S.*

Arun″do. Calyx 2-valved, unequal, membranaceous, surrounded with hair at the base; lower valve mucronate or slightly awned. Sometimes there is a pencil-form rudiment at the base of the upper valve. 4. 10—(reed.)

(*Calyx and corolla of similar texture—flowers in compact panicles, often spike-form.*)

Phle′um. Calyx hard, 2-valved, equal, sessile, linear, truncate, bicuspidate: corolla enclosed in the calyx, 2-valved, awnless, truncate. 4. 10—(timothy-grass.) *S.*

B. *Spikelets 1 flowered; corolla with 1 or 2 abortive rudiments of flowers at the base.*

(*Calyx and corolla of similar texture.*)

Phala′ris. Calyx membranaceous, 2-valved, valves keeled, nerved, equal in length, including the 2-valved pilose corolla. The corolla is shorter than the calyx and coriaceous: rudiments opposite, sessile, resembling valves: nectary lateral. 4. 10—(ribbon-grass, canary-grass.) *S.*

C. *Spikelets many-flowered.*

(*Flowers in panicles; corolla unarmed.*)

Bri′za. Spikelets heart-ovate, many-flowered: calyx chaffy, shorter than the 2-ranked florets: corolla ventricose: lower valve cordate, upper one orbicular, short. 4. 10—(quake-grass.) *S.*

Po′a. Spikelets oblong or linear, compressed, many-flowered: calyx shorter than the florets: corolla herbaceous, awnless, often arachnoid at the base; lower valve scarious at the margin. 4. 10—(spear-grass.) *S.*

Exotic.

Sorghum. Florets in pairs, one perfect, with a 3-valved corolla, and sessile; the other staminate or neutral, and pedicelled. 4. 10—(broom-corn.)

Dac″tylis. Spikelets aggregated in unilateral heads, many-flowered: calyx shorter than the florets, with one large glume, keeled, pointed: corolla with the lower valve keeled, emarginate, mucronate; upper valve sub-conduplicate. 4. 10—(orchard-grass.) *S.*

Ave′na. Calyx 2-valved; 2, 3, or many-flowered: corolla, valves mostly bearded at the base, lower one torn, with a twisted awn on the back: glumes membranaceous, and somewhat follicle-like: seed coated. 4. 10—(oats.) *S.*

D. *Flowers in spikes.*

Lo′lium. Calyx 1-leafed, permanent, many flowered: florets in many flowered 2-rowed simple sessile spikelets on a rachis: lower valve of the corolla herbaceous-membranaceous, mucronate, or bristled at the tip. 4. 10—(darnel-grass.)

Tri′ticum. Calyx 2-valved, about 3-flowered; florets sessile on the teeth of the rachis, obtusish and pointed: glumes beardless, or interruptedly bearded. 4. 10.—(wheat.)

Seca′le. Calyx 2-valved, 2 or 3-flowered: spikelets sessile on the teeth of the rachis, with the terminal floret abortive: calyx 2-valved; glumes subulate, opposite, shorter than the florets: corolla with the lower valve long-awned. 4. 10—(rye.)

E. *Flowers polygamous.*

(*In panicles.*)

Pan″icum. Calyx 2-valved, 2-flowered; the lower glume generally very small; the lower floret abortive, 1 or 2-valved; the lower valve resembling the calyx, the upper one membranaceous: perfect floret with cartilaginous valves, unarmed. 4. 10—(cockfoot-grass, panic-grass.) *S.*

(*In spikes.*)

Hor″deum. Spikelets 3 at each joint of the rachis, 1 or 2-flowered, all perfect, or the lateral ones abortive: glume lateral, subulate: perfect flower with a 2-valved corolla; lower valve ending in a bristle: seed coated. 4. 10—(barley.)

CLASS IV. TETRANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers superior.*

(1-*petalled.*)

Cephalan″thus. Inflorescence in a head: general calyx none; proper calyx superior, minute, angular, 4-cleft: corolla funnel-form: receptacle globular, hairy: capsules 2 to 4-partible: seed solitary, oblong. 48. 56—(button-bush.) *S.*

Ga′lium. Calyx 4-toothed; corolla flat, 4-cleft: fruit dry: seeds 2, roundish: (leaves stellate.) 47—57—(bedstraw.) *S.*

Housto′nia. Calyx half superior, 4-toothed: corolla salver-form, 4-cleft: capsule 2-celled, many-seeded, opening transversely. 47. 57—(Venus pride.) *S.*

Linnæ′a. Calyx double; that of the fruit 2-leaved, inferior; that of the flower 5-parted: corolla bell-form, 5-lobed: stamens somewhat didynamous: stigma globose: berry 3-celled, dry, generally producing a perfect seed in but one cell. 48. 58—(twin flower.)

Southern.

Ru′bia. Calyx 4-toothed: corolla 4 or 5-cleft, bell-form: berries 2, one-seeded, (stamens 4-5; leaves stellate.) 47. 57—(madder.)

(4-*petalled.*)

Cornus. Calyx 4-toothed: drupe with a 2-celled nut. Some species have a 4-leaved involucrum. 45. 58—(dogwood, false box.) *S.*

B. *Flowers inferior.*

(1-*petalled.*)

Planta′go. Calyx 4-cleft: corolla 4-cleft, reflexed: capsule 2-celled, opening transversely: stamens exsert, very long. 54. 31—(plantain, ribwort.) *S.*

Southern.

Ly′cium. Corolla tubular, having the throat closed by the beards of the filaments: stamens often 5: berry 2-celled, many-seeded. 28. 41—(matrimony.)

(*Apetalous.*)

Icto′des. General calyx a spatha; spadix simple, covered with flowers: perianth corolla-like, deeply 4-parted, permanent, becoming thick and spongy; style pyramid-form, 4-sided; stigma simple, minute: berries globose, 2-seeded, inclosed in the spongy spadix receptacle. 2. 7—(skunk-cabbage.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Hamame′lis. Involucrum 3-leaved: perianth 4-leaved or 4-cleft: petals 4, very long, linear: nut 2-celled, 2 horned. 54. 78—(witch-hazel.) Flowers in autumn, and perfects its seed the following spring. *S.*

ORDER IV. TETRAGYNIA.

Ilex. Calyx minute, 4 or 5-toothed: corolla 4-parted, wheel-form: style 0: stigmas 4: berry 4-celled, cells 1-seeded. 43. 95—(holly.)

CLASS V. PENTANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers* 1-*petalled, inferior; seeds naked in the bottom of the calyx.*

ROUGH-LEAVED PLANTS.

Myoso′tis. Calyx half 5-cleft or 5-cleft: corolla salver-form, curved, 5-cleft, vaulted, the lobes slightly emarginate; throat closed with 5 convex converging scales: seeds smooth or echinate. 41. 42—(scorpion-grass.) *S.*

Cynoglos″sum. Calyx 5-parted: corolla short, funnel-form, vaulted; throat closed by 5 converging convex processes: seeds depressed, affixed laterally to the style. 41. 42—(hound-tongue.) *S.*

Exotic.

Bora′go. Corolla wheel-form, the throat closed with rays. 41. 42—(borage.)

Anchu′sa. Calyx 5-parted: corolla funnel-form, vaulted: throat closed: seeds marked at the base, and their surface generally veined. 41. 42—(bugloss.)

Sym″phytum. Limb, or upper part of the corolla, tubular-swelling; the throat closed with subulate rays. 41. 42—(comfrey.)

Southern.

Heliotro′pium. Calyx tubular, 5-toothed: corolla salver-form, 5-cleft, with teeth or folds between the divisions; throat open. (Spikes recurved, involute,) 41. 42—(turnsol.)

B. *Flowers* 1-*petalled, inferior; seeds covered.*

(*Capsule* 1-*celled.*)

Anagal″lis. Calyx 5 parted: corolla wheel-form, deeply 5-lobed: capsule opening transversely, globose, many-seeded: stamens hairy. 20. 34—(scarlet pimpernel.) *S.*

Lysimach″ia. Calyx 5-cleft: corolla wheel-form, 5-cleft: capsule 1-celled, globular, 5 or 10-valved, mucronate: stigma obtuse. (In some species the filaments are united at the base.) 20. 34—(loose-strife.) *S.*

Pri′mula. Umbellets involucred: calyx tubular, 5-toothed: corolla salver-form, 5-lobed; tube cylindric; throat open; divisions of corolla emarginate: capsule 1-celled with a 10-cleft mouth: stigma globular. 21. 34—(primrose cowslip.)

(*Capsule* 2-*celled—rarely* 3-*celled.*)

Verbas″cum. Calyx 5-parted: corolla wheel-form, 5 lobed, somewhat irregular: stamens declined, hairy: capsules 2-celled, 2-valved; valves inflexed when ripened, many-seeded. 28. 41—(mullein.) *S.*

Nicotia′na. Calyx urceolate, sub-tubular, 5-cleft: corolla funnel-form, 5-cleft, limb plaited: stigma notched, capitate: stamens inclined: capsules 2-celled, 2 to 4-valved. 28. 41—(tobacco.)

CONVOL''VULUS. Calyx 5-parted, with or without 2 bracts: corolla funnel-form, plaited: stigma 2-cleft or double: cells of the capsule 2 or 3; each 1 or 2 seeded. 29. 43—(bind-weed.) *S.*

IPOMÆ'A. Calyx 5-cleft, naked: corolla funnel or bell-form, with 5 folds; stigma globe-headed, papillose; capsule 2 or 3-celled, many seeded. 29. 43—(cypress vine, morning glory.) *S.*

(*Capsule 3 to 5-celled.*)

PHLOX. Calyx prismatic, 5-cleft; segments converging: corolla salver-form, 5-lobed, with a tube somewhat curved: filaments unequal in length, attached to the inside of the tube of the corolla: stigmas 3-cleft: cells 1-seeded, seeds oblong, concave. 20. 44—(lichnedia.) *S.*

DATU'RA. Calyx tubular, angled, caducous, with a permanent orbicular base: corolla funnel-form, plaited: capsule 4-valved, 2-celled, and each cell half divided; generally thorny. 28. 41—(thorn-apple.) *S.*

AZA'LEA. Calyx 5-parted: corolla tubular, half 5-cleft, somewhat oblique; stamens on the receptacle, declined; stigma declined, obtuse, usually ending with 5 short papillæ: capsule 5-celled, 5-valved, opening at the top. 18. 50—(wild honeysuckle.) *S.*

VINCA. Corolla salver-form, twisted, border 5-cleft, with oblique divisions; throat 5-angled: seed naked, oblong: follicle-like capsules 2, erect, terete, narrow. 30. 47.

(*Seed in a berry.*)

SOLA'NUM. Calyx 5 to 10-parted, permanent: corolla bell or wheel-form, 5-lobed, plaited: anthers thickened, partly united, with two pores at the top: berry containing many seeds, 2 to 6-celled. 28. 41—(potato, nightshade, bitter-sweet.) *S.*

Exotic.

CAPSI''CUM. Corolla wheel-form: berry juiceless, inflated: anthers converging: calyx angular. 28. 41—(red pepper.)

C. *Flowers 1-petalled, superior.*

(*Seeds in a capsule.*)

CAMPAN''ULA. Calyx mostly 5-cleft: corolla bell-form, closed at the bottom by valves bearing the flattened stamens: stigma 3 to 5-cleft: capsules 3 to 5-celled, opening by lateral pores. 29. 52—(bell-flower.) *S.*

LOBE'LIA. Calyx 5-cleft: corolla irregular, often irregularly slitted: anthers cohering, and somewhat curved: stigma 2-lobed: capsule 2 or 3-celled. 29. 52—(cardinal flower, wild tobacco.) *S.*

DIERVIL''LA. Calyx oblong, 5-cleft, with 2 bracts: corolla 5-cleft, twice as long as the calyx, funnel-form: border 5-cleft, spreading: stigma capitate: capsule oblong, 4-celled, naked, many-seeded. 48. 58—(bush honeysuckle.) *S.*

(*Seeds in a berry.*)

LONICE'RA. CAPIFOLIUM. Calyx 5-toothed: corolla tubular, long, 5-cleft, unequal: stamens exsert: stigmas globose: berry 2 or 3-celled, distinct; seeds many. 48. 58—(trumpet honeysuckle.) *S.*

XYLOS''TEUM. Calyx 5-toothed, with 2 connate bracts: corolla tubular; border 5-parted, nearly equal: berries in pairs, united at their bases, or combined in one; 2-celled. 48. 58—(fly honeysuckle, twin-berry.)

Exotic.

MIRA'BILIS. Corolla funnel-form, coarctate (compressed or narrowed) below: calyx inferior: germ between the calyx and corolla: stigma globular. 54. 32—(four o'clock.)

D. *Flowers 5-petalled, inferior.*

(*Seed in a capsule.*)

IMPA''TIENS. Calyx 2-leaved, deciduous: corolla irregular, spurred: anthers cohering at the top: capsule 5-valved, bursting elastically when ripe. 24. 73—(touch-me-not, jewel weed.) *S.*

VI'OLA. Calyx 5-leaved or deeply 5-cleft: corolla irregular, with a horn behind; (sometimes the horn is wanting or a mere prominence) anthers attached by a membranous tip, or slightly cohering: capsule 1-celled, 3 valved. 29. 80—(violet.) *S.*

Clayto'nia. Calyx 2-leaved or 2-parted, the leaves valve-like: corolla 3-petalled, emarginate: stigma 3-cleft: capsule 1-celled, 3-valved, 3 to 5-seeded. 13. 86—(spring beauty.) S.

Ceano'thus. Petals scale-like, vaulted; claws long, standing in the 5-cleft, cup-form calyx; stigma 3; berry or capsule dry, 3-grained, 3-celled, 3-seeded, 3-parted, opening on the inner side. 43. 95—(New Jersey tea.) S.

Celas''trus. Calyx 5-lobed, flat: corolla spreading: capsule obtusely 3-angled, 3-celled, berry-like; valves bearing the partitions on their centres; cells 1 or 2-seeded: stamens standing around a glandular 5-toothed disk: style thick: stigma 3-cleft: seeds calyptred or arilled. 43. 95—(staff tree, false bittersweet.)

Exotic.

Gomphre'na. Calyx 5-leaved, coloured; exterior one 3-leaved; 2 leafets, converging, keeled: petals 5, villose, (or rather no corolla;) nectary cylindric, 5-toothed: capsule opening transversely, 1-seeded: style semi-bifid. 55. 30—(bachelor's button.)

(*Seed in a berry.*)

Vitis. Calyx 5-toothed, minute: petals cohering at the tip, hood-like, withering: style 0: stigma obtuse, capitate: berry 5-seeded, globular, often diœcious; seeds sub-cordate. 46. 72—(grape vine.) S.

E. *Flowers 5-petalled, superior.*

Ribes. Calyx bell-form, 5-cleft, (sometimes flat:) corolla and stamens inserted on the calyx: style 2-cleft: berry many-seeded. 36. 85—(currant, gooseberry.) S.

Exotic.

Hed''era. Petals oblong: berry 5-seeded, surrounded by the calyx: style simple. 46. 58—(European ivy.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

A. *Corolla 1-petalled, inferior.*

Gentia'na. Calyx 4 or 5-cleft: corolla with a tubular base, bell-form, without pores, 4 or 5-cleft: stigmas 2, sub-sessile: capsule 1-celled, oblong: columellas 2, longitudinal: stamens but 4, when the divisions of corolla are 4. 47. 46—(gentian.)

Cus''cuta. Calyx 4 or 5-cleft: corolla 4 or 5-cleft, sub-campanulate, withering: capsule 2-celled, dividing transversely at the base; seeds binate. 29. 43—(dodder.)

B. *Corolla 5-petalled.*

Panax. Polygamous. Umbelled. Involucrum many-leaved: calyx 5-toothed in the perfect flower, superior: berry heart-form, 2 or 3-seeded: calyx, in the staminate flower, entire. 46. 59—(ginseng.)

C. *Corolla wanting.*

Chenopo'dium. Calyx 5-parted, obtusely 5-angled, inferior: style deeply 2 cleft: seed 1, lens-like, horizontal, invested by the calyx. 12. 29—(pigweed oak of Jerusalem.) S.

Ul''mus. Calyx bell-form, withering; border 4 or 5-cleft: seed 1, enclosed in a flat membranaceous samara. (Stamens vary from 4 to 8.) 53. 99—(elm.) S.

Exotic.

Be'ta. Calyx 5-leaved: seed kidney-form within the fleshy substance of the base of the calyx. 12. 29—(beet.)

D. *Plants umbelliferous; flowers 5-petalled, superior: seeds 2.*

(*Seeds prickly or hispid.*)

Da'ucus. Seeds striate on their joining sides; outer sides convex, having hispid ribs: involucrum pinnatifid: flowers sub-radiated, abortive in the disk. 45. 60.—(carrot.) S.

Urasper''mum. **Scandix.** **Myrrhis.** **Chaerophyllum.** Seeds sub-linear, solid, acute-angled, not striate; ribs 5, acute; angles a little furrowed, hispid; the joining sides furrowed, and attached to a 2-cleft columella-like receptacle: style subulate, permanent, rendering the seed caudate: involucrum none or few-leaved. Fruit stiped, oblanceolate, polished, part of it hispid. 45. 60—(sweet cicely.)

(Seeds with wing-like ribs.)

ANGEL″ICA. Seeds with 3 ribs on their backs, and winged margins; intervals between the ribs grooved: germ oval, corticate: general involucrum none. 45. 60—(angelica.)

PASTINA′CA. Seeds emarginate at the apex, somewhat winged; ribs 3 besides the wings; intervals striate; joining sides 2-striate: germ oval, compressed, perianth-calyx entire: petals entire, incurved, sub-equal: involucrum none. 45. 60—(parsnip.)

Exotic.

ANE′THUM. Seeds flat or convex, 5-ribbed: germ lenticular, compressed: calyx and petals entire: involucrums none. 45. 60—(fennel, dill.)

(Seeds with 3 ribs, nearly equal.)

Exotic.

CARUM. Seeds oblong-ovate, striate: petals carinate, emarginate, inflexed: involucrum about 1-leaved. 45. 60—(caraway.)

(Seeds with 5 ribs, nearly equal.)

CO′NIUM. Seeds 5-ribbed: ribs at first crenate with flat intervals between them: germ ovate, gibbous; perianth entire; petals unequal, cordate, inflexed: general involucrum about 3 to 5-leaved; partial ones mostly 3-leaved, unilateral. 45. 60—(poison hemlock.)

CICU′TA. Seeds gibbous-convex: ribs 5, obtuse, converging, with intervening tuberculate grooves and prominences: joining sides flat: germ subglobose, corticate, compressed laterally: calyx obsolete, 5-toothed: petals cordate inflexed: partial involucrums 5 or 6-leaved, or wanting. 45. 60—(water hemlock.) *S.*

Exotic.

A′PIUM. Seeds convex externally; ribs 5, small, a little prominent: germ sub-globose: perianth entire: petals equal, roundish, inflexed at the apex: involucrum 1 to 3-leaved or wanting. 45. 60—(celery, parsley.)

CORIAN″DRUM. Seeds sub-spherical: germ spherical: perinth 5-toothed: petals cordate inflexed, outer ones largest: involucrum 1-leaved, or wanting. 45. 60—(coriander.)

Southern.

AETHU′SA. Fruit ovate, sub-solid, having bark; ribs acute and turgid, intervals acute-angled; joining sides flat, striate: involucrum 1-sided or none, 45. 60—(fools parsley.)

ORDER III. TRIGYNIA.

A. *Flowers superior.*

VIBUR″NUM. Calyx 5-parted or 5-toothed, small: corolla bell-form, 5-cleft, with spreading or reflexed lobes: stigmas almost sessile: berry or drupe 1-seeded. 43. 58—(snowball, sheep-berry, high cranberry.) *S.*

SAMBU′CUS. Calyx 5-parted or 5-cleft, small: corolla sub-urceolate, 5-cleft: stigma minute, sessile: berry globose, 1-celled, 3-seeded. 43. 58—(elder.) *S.*

B. *Flowers inferior.*

RHUS. Calyx 5-parted: petals 5: berry 1-seeded, small, sub-globular. 43. 94—(sumach, poison-ivy.) *S.*

STAPHYLE′A. Calyx 5-parted, coloured: petals 5 on the margin of a glandular 5-angled disk: capsules inflated, connate; nuts globular, having a cicatrice, 1 or 2 remaining in each capsule, though several appear as rudiments while in bloom. 23. 95—(bladder nut.) *S.*

ORDER IV. TETRAGYNIA.

PARNAS″SIA. Calyx inferior, permanent, 5-parted: corolla 5-petalled: nectaries 5 fringed, with stamen-like divisions; globular tips: stigmas sessile: capsule 4-valved, 1 or 2-celled: seed membranaceous-margined. 14. 64—(parnassus grass, flowering plantain.) *S.*

ORDER V. PENTAGYNIA.

ARA′LIA. Umbellets involucred; perianth 5-toothed, superior: petals 5:

stigmas sessile, sub-globose: berry crowned, 5-celled; cells 1-seeded. 46. 59—(spikenard, wild sarsaparilla.) *S.*

Linum. Calyx 5-leaved or 5-parted, permanent: corolla 5-petalled, inferior, with claws: capsule 5 or 10-valved, 10-celled: seeds solitary, ovate, compressed; filaments spreading or united at the base. 14. 73—(flax.) *S.*

ORDER VI. HEXAGYNIA.

Dros″era. Calyx inferior, deeply 5-cleft, permanent: petals 5, marcescent: anthers adnate: styles 6, or one deeply divided: capsule round, 1 or 3-celled, many-seeded; valves equalling the number of stigmas. 20. 68—(sundew.) The leaves of all the species are beset with glandular hairs resembling dew. *S.*

ORDER XIII. POLYGYNIA.

Zanthorhi′za. Calyx 0: petals 5: nectaries 5, pedicelled: capsule half 2-valved 1-seeded, about 5 in number. 26. 61—(yellow root.) *S.*

CLASS VI. HEXANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers having a perianth and corolla, without a spatha.*

Tradescan″tia. Calyx inferior, 3-leaved: corolla 3-petalled; filaments with jointed beards: capsules 3-celled, many seeded. 6. 13—(spider-wort.) *S.*

Ber″beris. Mahonia. Calyx inferior, 6-leaved: petals 6, with 2 glands at the claw of each: style 0: berry 1-celled, 2 or 4-seeded: (stigma umbilicate: stamens spring up on being irritated.) 54. 78—(barberry.) *S.*

Cleo′me. Calyx 4-leaved, inferior: petals 4, ascending to one side: glands 3, one at each sinuate division of the calyx except the lowest: stamens from 6 to 20, or more: capsule stiped or sessile, silique-like, often 1-celled, 2-valved. Does not belong to the class Tetradynamia by its natural or artificial characters. It has *no silique*, though the capsule appears like a silique, until it is opened. 25. 64—(false mustard.)

B. *Flowers having a spatha or glume, without a perianth.*

Amaryl″lis. Corolla superior, 6-petalled, unequal: filaments unequal in proportion or direction, declined, inserted in the throat of the tube. 9. 17—(atamask lily.) *S.*

Al″lium. Spatha many-flowered: corolla inferior, 6-parted, very deeply divided; divisions ovate, spreading: capsule 3-celled, 3-valved, many-seeded: (flowers in close umbels or heads.) 9. 16—(leek, garlic, onion, cives.) *S.*

Hypox″is. Glume-like spatha, 2-valved: corolla superior, 6-parted, permanent: capsule elongated, narrow at the base, 3-celled, many-seeded: seed roundish. 10. 17—(star-grass.) *S.*

Pontede′ria. Corolla inferior, 6-cleft, 2-lipped, with 3 longitudinal perforations below: capsule with utricles, fleshy, 3-celled, many seeded: 3 stamens commonly inserted on the tip, and three on the tube of the corolla. 6. 17—(pickerel-weed.) *S.*

Exotic.

Galan″thus. Petals 3, concave, superior: nectaries (or inner petals) 3 small, emarginate: stigma simple. 6. 17—(snowdrop.)

Narcis″sus. Corolla bell-form, spreading, 6-parted or 6-petalled, equal, superior: nectary bell-form, 1-leafed, enclosing the stamens. 9. 17—(jonquil, daffodil.)

C. *Flowers having no calyx.*

Hemerocal″lis. Corolla 6-parted, tubular, funnel-form: stamens declined: stigma small, simple, somewhat villose. 10. 16—(day-lily.)

Ornithog″alum. Corolla 6-petalled, inferior, erect, permanent, spreading above the middle: filaments dilated, or subulate, at the base: capsule roundish, angled, 3 celled; seed roundish, naked. 10. 16—(star of Bethlehem.) *S.*

Li′lium. Corolla inferior, liliaceous, 6-petalled: petals with a longitudinal line from the middle to the base: stamens shorter than the style: stigma undivided: capsule sub-triangular, with the valves connected by hairs crossing as in a sieve. 10. 14—(lily.) *S.*

Erythro′nium. Corolla liliaceous, inferior, 6-petalled; petals reflexed, having two pores and two tubercle-form nectaries at the base of the three inner alternate petals; capsule somewhat stiped: seeds ovate. 11. 14—(dog-tooth violet, or adder tongue.) *S.*

Uvula′ria. Corolla inferior, 6-petalled, with a nectariferous hollow at the base of each petal: filaments very short, growing to the anthers: stigmas reflexed: capsule 3-cornered, 3-celled, 3-valved; with transverse partitions: seeds many, sub-globose, arilled at the hilum. 11. 14—(bell-wort.) *S.*

Convalla′ria. Smilaci′na. Polygona′tum. Dracae′na. Corolla inferior, 6-cleft: berry globose, 3-celled, spotted before ripening. 11. 12—(solomon seal.) *S.*

Aspar″agus. Corolla inferior, 6-parted, erect; the three inner divisions reflexed at the apex: style very short: stigmas 3: berry 3-celled, cells 2-seeded. 11. 12—(asparagus.)

Exotic.

Polyan″thes. Corolla funnel-form, incurved: filaments inserted in the throat: stigma 3-cleft: germ within the bottom of the corolla. 10. 17—(tuberose.)

Hyacin″thus. Corolla roundish or bell-form, equal, 6-cleft: three nectariferous pores at the top of the germ: stamens inserted in the middle of the corolla: cells somewhat 2-seeded. 10. 16—(hyacinth.)

Tu′lipa. Corolla 6-petalled, liliaceous, style none; stigma thick: capsule oblong, 3-sided. 10. 14—(tulip.)

Aspho′delus. Corolla 6-parted, spreading: nectary covering the germ with 6 valves. 10. 16—(king's spear, or asphodel.)

Southern.

Frittilla′ria. Corolla inferior, 6-petalled, bell-form, with a nectariferous cavity above the claw of each: stamens of the length of the corolla: seeds flat. 10. 14—(crown imperial.)

Scilla. Corolla 6-petalled, spreading, caducous: filaments thread-form, attached to the base of the petals. 10. 14—(squills.)

D. *Flowers incomplete; having perianth-like calyx or corolla; but neither in perfection.*

Ac′orus. Receptacle spadix-like, cylindric, covered with florets: calyx 6-parted, naked: corolla 0; (or calyx none, corolla 6-parted or 6-petalled:) style none; stigma a mere point: capsule 3-celled, 3-seeded. 2. 13—(sweet flag.) *S.*

Juncus. Glume or outer calyx, 2-valved; perianth inferior, 6-leaved, glume-like, permanent: stigmas 3: capsules 1 or 3-celled, 3-valved, many-seeded; seeds attached to a partition in the middle of each valve. 5. 13—(rush-grass, bulrush.) *S.*

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Exotic.

Ory′za. Calyx, glume 2-valved, 1-flowered: corolla 2-valved, adhering to the seed. 4. 10—(rice.)

ORDER III. TRIGYNIA.

Tril″lium. Calyx 3-leaved, inferior, spreading: corolla 3-petalled: styles 0: stigmas 3: berry 3-celled, many seeded. 11. 12—(false wake robin.) *S.*

Rumex. Calyx 3-leaved: petals 3, valve-like, converging, (or calyx 6-leaved, and corolla none:) stigmas many-cleft: seed 1, naked, three-sided. 12. 28—(dock, field-sorrel.) *S.*

Southern.

Chamae′rops. Flowers polygamous: spatha compressed; spadix branched: perianth 3-parted: corolla 3-petalled: filaments partly united: drupe 3-celled, 2 of them often empty. The staminate flowers grow on distinct plants. 1. 11—(fan palm.)

CLASS VII. HEPTANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

Trienta′lis. Calyx 7-leaved: corolla 7-parted, equal, flat: berry juiceless, 1-celled, many-seeded: number of stamens variable. 20. 34—(chick-winter-green.)

Æs″culus. Calyx inflated, 4 or 5-toothed: corolla 4 or 5-petalled, inserted on the calyx, unequal, pubescent: capsule 3-celled: seeds large, solitary, chesnut-form. 23. 66—(horse-chesnut.) *S.*

ORDER IV. TETRAGYNIA.

Sauru'rus. Calyx in an ament or spike, with 1-flowered scales: corolla 0: anthers adnate to the filaments: germ 4: berries or capsules 4, 1-seeded: stamens 6, 7, 8 or more. 2. 6—(lizard tail.) *S.*

CLASS VIII. OCTANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers superior.*

Oeno'thera. Calyx 4-cleft, tubular, caducous, divisions deflected: petals 4, inserted on the calyx: stigma 4-cleft: capsule 4-celled, 4-valved; seeds not feathered, affixed to a central 4-sided columella. 17. 88—(scabish, or tree-primrose.) *S.*

Epilo'bium. Calyx 4-cleft, tubular: corolla 4-petalled: capsule oblong and of great length: seeds feathered. 17. 88—(willow-herb.) *S.*

Oxyco'ccus. Calyx superior, 4-toothed: corolla 4-parted, the divisions sublinear, revolute: filaments converging; anthers tubular, 2-parted: berry many-seeded. 18. 51—(cranberry.) *S.*

Exotic.

Fuch″sia. Calyx funnel-form, coloured, superior, caducous: petals (or nectaries) 4, sitting in the throat of the calyx, alternating with its divisions: stigma 4-sided-capitate: berry oblong, 4-celled: seeds numerous. 17. 88—(ear-drop.)

B. *Flowers inferior.*

A'cer. Polygamous. Sometimes hexandrous. Calyx 5-cleft: corolla 4 or 5-petalled, or wanting: samaras 2, united at the base, 1-seeded, often one rudiment of a seed. 23. 66—(maple.) *S.*

Exotic.

Eri'ca. Calyx 4-leaved, permanent: corolla 4-cleft, permanent: filaments inserted on the receptacle: anthers bifid: capsules membranaceous, 4 to 8-celled, the partitions form the margins of the valves: seeds many in each cell. 18. 51—(heath.)

Daphne. Calyx 0; corolla 4-cleft, withering, including the stamens: drupe 1-seeded. 31. 25—(mezereon.)

Tropæ'olum. Calyx 4 or 5-cleft, coloured, spurred: petals 4 or 5, unequal: nuts leathery, sulcate. 23. 73—(nasturtion.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Chrysosple'nium. Calyx superior, 4 or 5-cleft, coloured: corolla 0: capsule 2-beaked, 1-celled, many-seeded. (The terminal flowers in the European specimens are decandrous, but the plant is always octandrous in America.) 13. 84—(golden saxifrage, water-carpet.) *S.*

ORDER III. TRIGYNIA.

Polyg″onum. Calyx inferior, 5-parted, coloured: corolla 0; seed 1, angular, covered with the calyx. Stamens and pistils vary in number. The calyx in some species might be taken for a corolla. 12. 28—(knot-grass, water-pepper, buckwheat, hearts-ease.) *S.*

CLASS IX. ENNEANDRIA.

ORDER 1. MONOGYNIA.

Laurus. Calyx 4 to 6-parted: corolla 0: nectaries 3, each a 2-bristled or 2-lobed gland, surrounding the germ: drupe 1-seeded. Stamens vary from 3 to 14, but they are generally in two series of 6 each, with 3 of the inner series barren—often diœcious. The calyx may be taken for a corolla. 12. 27—(sassafras, spice-bush.) *S.*

ORDER III. TRIGYNIA.

Exotic.

Rheum. Calyx none: corolla 6-cleft, permanent: seed 1, 3-sided. 12. 28—(rhubarb.)

CLASS X. DECANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

A. *Flowers polypetalous, irregular, (mostly papilionaceous.)*

Cassia. Calyx 5-leaved: corolla 5-petalled: anthers 3, lower ones beaked, and on longer incurved filaments; legume membranaceous. 33. 93—(cassia.) *S.*

Bapti'sia. Podalyr''ia. Calyx 4 or 5-cleft half-way, (sometimes 4-toothed) somewhat 2-lipped: corolla papilionaceous; wings of the length of the reflexed banner: stamens caducous: legume inflated, smooth, many-seeded. 32. 93—(wild indigo.) *S.*

Cercis. Calyx 5-toothed, gibbous below: corolla papilionaceous; wings longer than the banner; keel 2-petalled: legume compressed: seed-bearing suture margined: seeds obovate. 33. 93—(Judas-tree.) *S.*

B. *Flowers polypetalous, regular.*

Py'rola. Calyx 5-parted: petals 5; styles longer than the stamens: anthers with 2 pores at the base before, and the top after, the opening of the flower: capsule 5-celled, dehiscent at the angles near the base. 18. 51—(shin-leaf.) *S.*

Chimaph''ila. Calyx 5-parted: petals 5: anthers beaked, with 2 pores at the base before, and at the top after, the opening of the flower: style immersed: stigma thick, orbiculate: capsule 5-celled, dehiscent at the angles near the summit. 18. 51—(prince's pine, pipsissiwa.) *S.*

Leiophyl''lum. Calyx 5-parted: corolla flat, 5-parted or 5-petalled: stamens longer than the corolla, with lateral anthers opening longitudinally on their insides: capsule 5-celled, dehiscent at the top, 5-valved: valves ovate with margins inflexed, remote, straight; columella sub-ovate, terete, rugose: seeds small, not winged, (leaves always glabrous.) 18. 50—(sleek leaf.) *S.*

Clethra. Calyx 5-parted, permanent: corolla 5-petalled: style permanent: stigma short, 3-cleft: capsule 3-celled, 3-valved, enclosed by the calyx. (Spiked.) 18. 51—(sweet pepper-bush.) *S.*

Exotic.

Ruta. Calyx 5-parted: petals concave: receptacle surrounded by 10 nectariferous dots: capsule lobed. (Petals sometimes 4, and stamens 8.) 26. 81—(rue.)

Southern.

Dionae'a. Calyx 5-parted or 5-leaved: petals 5: stigma fringed: capsule roundish, gibbous, 1-celled, many-seeded. Petals sometimes 6. 20. 68—(venus fly-trap.)

C. *Flowers monopetalous.*

Arbu'tus. Calyx inferior, 5-parted, minute: corolla ovate, pellucid at the base; border small, 5-cleft, revolute: filaments hairy: berry 5-celled. 18. 51—(bear berry.)

Epigae'a. Calyx double, outer 3-leaved, inner 5-parted: (or calyx 5-parted, with 3 bracts:) corolla salver-form; border 5-parted, spreading; tube villose within: capsule 5-celled, many-seeded; receptacle 5-parted. 18. 51—(trailing arbutus.) *S.*

Gaulthe'ria. Calyx inferior, double; outer 2-leaved, inner 5-cleft: (or calyx 5-cleft, with 2 bracts:) corolla ovate; border small, 5-cleft, revolute: filaments hairy: receptacle 10-toothed; (or with a 10-pointed nectary:) capsule 5-celled, invested with the inner berry-like calyx. 18. 51—(spicy winter-green.) *S.*

Vacci'nium. Calyx superior, 5-toothed or 5-parted: corolla bell or pitcher-form, 5-cleft, the divisions reflected: filaments inserted on the germ with the corolla: berry 4 or 5-celled, many-seeded. (The foreign species are sometimes octandrous.) 18. 51—(whortleberry.) *S.*

Androm''eda. Lyonia. Calyx 5-parted or 5-toothed, inferior: corolla ovate, roundish, or sub-cylindric, with a 5-cleft reflexed mouth: capsule 5-celled, 5-valved, with partitions contrary. (Stamens sometimes 8.) 18. 51—(white-bush, leather-leaf.) *S.*

Kal''mia. Calyx 5-parted: corolla wheel-salver-form, with 10 horns beneath and 10 cavities within, containing the anthers until the pollen is mature: capsule 5-celled, many-seeded. 18. 50—(laurel.) *S.*

Rhododen''dron. Calyx 5-parted: corolla 5-cleft, somewhat funnel-form and oblique: stamens declining; varying from 5 to 10; anthers opening by 2 terminal pores: capsules 5-celled, 5-valved, opening at the top. 18. 50—(rose-bay.) *S.*

D. *Flowers without a calyx: (or with a coloured petal like one,) whole plant destitute of green herbage.*

Monot''ropa. Corolla confusedly polypetalous, permanent: petals about 5, with nectariferous hollows at their bases: anthers reniform, sub-peltate, 1-celled, giving out pollen by 2 holes near the middle: stigma orbicular, not bearded: capsule 5-celled, 5-valved. 18. 51—(bird's nest.) *S.*

Pteros''pora. Corolla 5-parted: nectary ovate, with a 5-toothed reflexed margin, enclosing the stamens: anthers 2-celled, 2-bristled, sub-peltate; filaments flat: style short: stigma capitate: capsule sub-globose, 5-celled. The nectary is considered as a corolla, and the corolla as a calyx, by some. But these three genera should be united in one, by altering two or three words in the definition. 18. 51—(albany beach-drops.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA.

Hydran''gea. Calyx 5-toothed, superior: corolla 5-petalled: capsule 2-celled, 2-beaked, dehiscent between the beaks. 13. 84—(hydrangea.) Vid. Hortensia. *S.*

Saxifra'ga. Calyx 5-parted, mostly half superior: corolla 5-petalled: capsule 2-celled, 2-beaked, opening between the beaks; many-seeded. 13. 84—(saxifrage.) *S.*

Sapona'ria. Calyx inferior, 1-leafed, tubular, 5-toothed, without scales: petals 5, with claws: capsule oblong, 1-celled. 22. 82—(soap-wort.) *S.*

Dian''thus. Calyx inferior, cylindrical, 1-leafed, with 4 or 8 scales at the base: petals 5, with claws: capsule cylindrical, 1-celled, dehiscent at the top. 22. 82—(pink, sweet-william.)

ORDER III. TRIGYNIA.

Arena'ria. Calyx inferior, spreading, 5-leaved: petals 5, entire: capsule 1-celled, many-seeded. 22. 82—(sandwort.) *S.*

Exotic.

Horten''sia. Flowers deformed: florets solitary: calyx 5-toothed, minute: corolla 5-petalled: the gay flowers composing the cyme have a large, coloured, permanent, petal-like, 5-leaved calyx, and a minute, caducous, 4 or 5-petalled corolla: stamens 8, 10 or 11. 13. 84—(changeable hydrangea.)

ORDER V. PENTAGYNIA.

Ceras''tium. Calyx 5-leaved: petals 5, 2-cleft, or emarginate: capsule 1-celled, dehiscent at top, 10-toothed. 22. 82—(mouse-ear, chick-weed.) *S.*

Agrostem''ma. Calyx 5-cleft, prismatic or tubular; coriaceous: petals 5, with claws: border obtuse, entire: capsule 1-celled, many-seeded, opening with 5 teeth. 22. 82—(cockle.) *S.*

Oxa'lis. Calyx permanent, 5-parted or 5-leaved, inferior: petals 5, cohering by the claws: capsule 5-celled, 5-cornered, dehiscent at the corners: seeds 2 or more in a cell, covered with an elastic aril: stamens with 5 shorter, outer ones adhering at their bases. This genus and the Linum might be removed to the class Monadelphia. 14. 73—(wood sorrel.) *S.*

Pentho'rum. Calyx 5 to 10-cleft: petals 5 or 0: capsule 5-cuspidate, 5-celled; cells divided transversely, many-seeded. 13. 83—(virginian orpine.) *S.*

Sedum. Calyx inferior, 5-cleft: 5 petals: 5 nectariferous scales at the base of the germ: capsule 5. 13. 83—(live-forever, or orpine, stonecrop.)

Exotic.

Lychnis. Calyx 1-leaved, oblong, 5-toothed: petals 5, with claws: the limb somewhat 2-cleft: capsule 1 or 5-celled, with a 5-toothed opening. 22. 82—(campion.)

ORDER X. DECAGYNIA.

PHYTOLAC″CA. Calyx 0: corolla 5-petalled or 5-cleft, calyx-like, inferior: berry 10-celled, 10-seeded. By some authors the calyx is called a corolla. 54. 29—(poke-weed.) *S.*

CLASS XI. ICOSANDRIA.*

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

CACTUS. Calyx superior, many-cleft, imbricate: petals numerous, in many series, the inner ones larger: stigma many-cleft; berry 1-celled, many-seeded, umbilicate. 13. 85—(prickly pear.) *S.*

PRUNUS. Calyx 5-cleft, inferior, bell-form: corolla 5-petalled; nut of the drupe smooth with prominent seams at the sutures. 36. 92—(cherry, plum.) *S.*

CU′PHEA. Calyx tubular-ventricose, 6 to 12-toothed, unequal: petals 6, mostly unequal, inserted on the calyx: capsule 1-celled, dehiscent, longitudinally with the calyx, follicle-like, 3-sided: seeds lenticular. 54. 91—(wax-bush.) *S.*

Exotic.

MYRTUS. Calyx superior, 5-cleft: petals 5: berry 2 or 3 celled, many-seeded. 19. 89—(myrtle.)

AMYG″DALUS. Calyx 5-cleft inferior: petals 5: drupe with a nut, perforated with pores: flowers sessile. 36. 92—(peach.)

ARMENI′ACA. Flowers sessile: calyx 5-cleft, inferior: petals 5: drupe, fleshy, pubescent: nut with one margin acute and the other obtuse, furrowed both sides. 36. 92—(apricot.)

PU′NICA. Calyx 5-cleft, superior: petals 5: pome or berry many-celled, many-seeded: receptacle parietal: seed berried. 36. 92—(pomegranate.)

Southern.

PHILADEL″PHUS. Calyx 4-5-parted, superior, top-form: corolla 4 or 5-petalled: style 4-cleft: capsule 4-5-celled, many-seeded; seed arilled. 19. 89—(false syringa, or mock orange.)

ORDER II. DIGYNIA, to ORDER V. PENTAGYNIA; or DI-PENTAGYNIA.

AGRIMO′NIA. Calyx inferior, 5-cleft or 5-toothed, invested with an outer lobed one: petals 5: stamens 12: seeds 2, in the bottom of the calyx. 35. 92—(agrimony.) *S.*

CRATÆ′GUS. Calyx superior, 5-cleft: petals 5: styles 1 to 5: berry mealy: seeds 2 to 5, bony. 36. 92—(thorn-bush.) *S.*

ARO′NIA. Calyx superior, 5-tooth: petals 5: fruit pomaceous: berry 5 or 10-celled; cells 1 or 2-seeded; seeds cartilaginous. 36. 92—(shad-flower, choak-berry.) *S.*

PYRUS. Calyx 5-cleft, superior: corolla 5-petalled: pome 5-celled, many-seeded; seed compressed-ovate. 36. 92—(pear, apple, quince.) *S.*

SPIRAE′A. Calyx 5-cleft, inferior, spreading: corolla 5-petalled; petals, equal, roundish: stamens numerous, exsert: capsules 3 to 12, 2-valved within, each, 1 to 3-seeded. 36. 92—(steeple-bush, hard-hack.) *S.*

Exotic.

MESEMBRYAN″THEMUM. Calyx superior, 5-cleft: petals numerous, linear, cohering at the base: capsule fleshy, many-seeded, turbinate. 13. 87—(ice-plant.)

ORDER XIII. POLYGYNIA.

ROSA. Calyx urn-form, inferior, 5-cleft, fleshy: contracted towards the top: petals 5: seeds numerous, bristly, fixed to the sides of the calyx within. A genus remarkable for the multiplication of its petals, by rich culture. 35. 92—(rose.) *S.*

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* Darlington proposes CALYCANDRIA (calyx-stamens) as a substitute; and to extend the class to all stamen-bearing calyxes.

Rubus. Calyx 5-cleft, inferior: corolla 5-petalled: pistils numerous: berry composed of many juicy, 1-seeded acines, on a dry receptacle. 35. 92—raspberry, blackberry.) *S.*

Dalibar''da. Calyx 5-cleft, (8-cleft ?) inferior: corolla 5-petalled: styles long, caducous, 5 to 8; berry composed of dry granulations. 35. 92—(dry strawberry.) *S.*

Geum. Calyx inferior, 10-cleft, 5 alternate divisions smaller: corolla 5-petalled: seeds with a bent awn: receptacle columnar, villous. 35. 92—(avens, or herb bennet.) *S.*

Potentil''la. Calyx flat, inferior, 10-cleft: 5 alternate divisions smaller: corolla 5-petalled: petals roundish or obovate: seeds awnless, roundish, rugose, fixed to a dry small receptacle. 35. 92—(five-finger, cinquefoil.) *S.*

Fraga'ria. Calyx inferior, 10-cleft; 5 alternate divisions smaller: corolla 5-petalled: receptacle ovate, berry-like: acines naked, immersed in the receptacle, caducous. 35. 92—(strawberry.) *S.*

CLASS XII. POLYANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONOGYNIA.

Ti'lia. Calyx 5 or 6-parted, inferior, caducous: corolla 5 or 6-petalled: capsule 5 or 6-celled, globular, coriaceous, dehiscent at the base; 1-seeded. Often 4 of the cells are empty. 37. 79—(bass-wood.) *S.*

Portulac''ca. Calyx 2-cleft, inferior: corolla 5-petalled: capsule 1-celled, opening transversely: columella 5, filiform. 13. 86—(purslane.) *S.*

Chelido'nium. Calyx 2-leaved, caducous: corolla 4-petalled: silique-like, capsule 1-celled, 2-valved, linear: seeds crested, many. 27. 62—(celandine,) *S.*

Sanguina'ria. Calyx caducous, 2-leaved: corolla about 8-petalled: stigma sessile, twinned, 2-grooved: capsule pod-like, ovate, 1-celled, 2-valved, acute at each end; valves caducous: columella 2, permanent. 27. 62—(blood-root.) *S.*

Podophyl''lum. Calyx 3-leaved, minute: corolla about 9-petalled: stigma large, crenate, sessile: berry 1-celled, crowned with the stigma, large, many-seeded: columella one-sided. 27. 61—(wild mandrake.) *S.*

Macro'tis. Calyx about 4-leaved, becoming coloured before expanding, aducous: corolla many minute petals, very caducous, or wanting: stigma simple, sessile, curving towards the gibbous side of the germ: capsule 2-valved, dehiscent at its strait suture.* 26. 61—(cohosh, black snake root, bugbane.) *S.*

Sarrace'nia. Calyx double, permanent, 3 and 5-leaved: corolla 5-petalled, caducous: stigma peltate, permanent, very large, covering the stamens: capsule 5-celled, 5-valved, many seeded. 54. 62—(side-saddle flower.) *S.*

Nuphar. Calyx 5 or 6-leaved, petals many, minute, inserted on the receptacle with the stamens, nectariferous on their backs: stigma with a broad disk, and radiate furrows, sessile: pericarp berry-like, many-celled, many-seeded. 13. 62—(water-lily, or yellow pond-lily.) *S.*

Nymphae'a. Calyx 4 to 7-leaved: corolla many-petalled, petals about equalling the length of the calyx leaves, attached to the germ beneath the stamens: stigma a broad disk, marked with radiated lines: pericarp berry-like, many-celled, many-seeded. 13. 62—(pond-lily.)

Exotic.

Papa'ver. Calyx 2-leaved, caducous, corolla 4-petalled: stigma a broad disk, with radiating lines: capsule 1-celled, dehiscent by pores under the permanent stigma. 27. 62—(poppy.)

Thea. Calyx 5 or 6-leaved: corolla 6 or 9-petalled: capsule 3-seeded. 54. 71—(tea.)

Citrus. Calyx 5-cleft: petals 5, oblong: filaments dilated at the base, in several parcels: berry 9 to 18-celled—Polyadelphous. 18. 70—(orange, lemon.)

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* I see no good reason for changing this name to Botrophis, according to Rafinesque. Our plant does not agree with the description of Actea or Cimicifuga.

ORDER II. DIGYNIA, TO ORDER V. PENTAGYNIA: OR DI-PENTAGYNIA.

Delphi'nium. Calyx 0: corolla 5 petalled, unequal: nectary 2-cleft, horned behind: capsules 1 or 3, pod-like. By some the corolla is considered as a coloured calyx. 26. 61—(larkspur.) *S.*

Aconi'tum. Calyx 0: petals 5, upper one vaulted: nectaries 2, hooded, peduncled, recurved: capsule 3 or 5, pod-like. By some the corolla is considered as a coloured calyx. 26. 61—(monk's hood.) *S.*

Aquile'gia. Calyx 0: petals 5, caducous: nectaries 5, alternating with the petals, and terminating downwards in a spur-like nectary: capsules 5, erect; acuminated with the permanent styles, many-seeded. By some the nectaries are considered as petals and the corolla as a coloured calyx. 26. 61—(columbine.) *S.*

Hyper''icum. Calyx 5-parted; divisions equal, sub-ovate: corolla 5-petalled: filaments often united at the base in 3 or 5 sets: styles 2 to 5; capsules membranaceous, roundish, with a number of cells equal to the number of styles. The bases of the filaments are often in groups, when they are not united. 20. 68—(st. john's wort.) *S.*

Exotic.

Paeo'nia. Calyx 5-leaved: petals 5: styles 0: stigmas 2 or 3: capsules pod-like, many-seeded. Remarkable for the multiplication of petals by rich culture. 26. 61—(peony.)

ORDER XIII. POLYGYNIA.

A. *Perianth none.*

Clem''atis. Petals 3, 4, 5, or 6: seeds compressed: styles permanent, becoming long plumose tails. (Some species are diœcious.) 26. 61—virgin's bower.) By some the corolla is considered a coloured calyx. *S.*

Thalic''trum. Petals 4 or 5: filaments very long: seeds without tails, striate, terete. (Some species are diœcious.) 26. 61—(meadow rue.) The corolla is considered a coloured calyx by some. *S.*

Anemo'ne. Petals 5 to 9: seeds numerous, naked. 26. 61—(wind-flower, rue anemone.) The corolla is considered a calyx by some. *S.*

Coptis. Petals 5 or 6, caducous: nectaries small, 5 or 6, cowled: capsules oblong, 5 to 8, stiped, stellate, beaked, many-seeded. 26. 61—(gold thread.) By some the nectaries are mistaken for corollas, and the corollas for calyxes.

Caltha. Petals 5 to 9, orbicular: capsules numerous, (5 to 10,) many-seeded, compressed; 1-celled, spreading: nectaries 0: (pistils variable in number.) 26. 61—(american cowslip.) *S.* By some the corolla is mistaken for a coloured calyx.

Exotic.

Helleb''orus. Petals 5 or more: nectary 2-lipped, tubular: capsules 5 or 6; many-seeded, erectish, compressed. 26. 61—(hellebore.)

B. *Having a perianth.*

Magno'lia. Calyx 3-leaved: corolla 6 to 9-petalled: capsules numerous, imbricate on a strobile-like spike, 2-valved: seeds arilled, pendulous on long cords; berry-like. 52. 75—(magnolia, or beaver-tree.) *S.*

Linioden''dron. Calyx 3-leaved: corolla 6 or 9-petalled, liliaceous: seeds in a sub-lanceolate samara, imbricate on a strobile-like spike. 52. 75—(tulip tree, or white wood.) *S.*

Hepat''ica. Calyx 3-leaved, a little distance below the corolla, entire: petals 6 to 9: seeds without tails. 26. 61—(liverleaf.) *S.*

Ranun''culus. Calyx 5-leaved: petals 5, with claws, and a nectariferous pore or scale on the inside of each: seeds without tails, naked, numerous. 26. 61—(crow-foot.) Some mistake an extra tegument for a capsule. *S.*

Exotic.

Sempervi'vum. Calyx 9 to 12-parted: petals 8 to 12: capsules 12, many-seeded; (stamens 16 or 20.) 13. 83—(house-leek.)

Ado'nis. Calyx 4-5-leaved: petals 5 or more, without nectariferous pores: seeds awnless. 26. 61—(pheasant's eye.)

CLASS XIII. DIDYNAMIA.

ORDER I. GYMNOSPERMIA.

A. *Calyx 5-cleft, with the divisions, or teeth, nearly equal.*

Teu'crium. Corolla deep cleft on the upper side, and without an upper lip, lower lip 3-cleft, the middle division rounded: stamens and pistils incurved; stamens exsert through the cleavage on the upper side of the corolla. 42. 39—(wood sage, wild germander.) *S.*

Mentha. Corolla nearly equal, 4-lobed; broadest division emarginate: stamens erect, distant. 42. 39—(spearmint, peppermint.) *S.*

Isan″thus. Calyx somewhat bell-form: corolla 5-parted; tube straight, narrow; divisions ovate, equal: stamens nearly equal: stigma linear, recurved. 42. 39—(blue gentian.)

Hedeo'ma. Calyx 2-lipped, gibbose at the base; upper lip with 3 lanceolate teeth; lower lip with two subulate ones; corolla ringent: 2 short stamens barren. 42. 39—(pennyroyal.) *S.*

Nep″eta. Calyx dry, striate: corolla with a longish tube; under lip with the middle division crenate: throat with a reflected margin: stamens approximate. 42. 39—(catmint.) *S.*

Stach″ys. Calyx with its divisions awned: corolla with the upper lip vaulted; the lower lip 3-lobed; the middle divisions largest, emarginate; the lateral divisions reflexed: stamens reflexed towards the sides after discharging the pollen. 42. 39—(wound-wort, hedge nettle.) *S.*

Leonu'rus. Calyx 5-angled, 5-toothed: corolla with the upper lip erect, villose, flat, entire; lower lip 3-parted; middle division undivided: lobes of the anthers parallel, having shining dots. 42. 39—(mother-wort.) *S.*

Verbe'na. Calyx with one of the teeth truncate: corolla funnel-form, with a curved tube; border 5-cleft, nearly equal: seeds 2 or 4, with an extra vanishing tegument: sometimes 2 stamens are barren. 42. 39—(vervain.) *S.*

Marru'bium. Calyx salver-form, rigid, marked with 10 lines: corolla with the upper lip 2-cleft, linear, straight. 42. 39—(horehound.) *S.*

Glecho'ma. Calyx 5-cleft: corolla double the length of the calyx; upper lip 2-cleft; lower lip 3-cleft, with the middle segment emarginate; each pair of anthers approaching so as to exhibit the form of a cross. 42. 39—(ground ivy, gill-overground.)

Pycnan″themum. Involucrum bract-like, many-leaved; under small heads of flowers: calyx tubular, striate: corolla with the upper lip sub-entire; lower lip 3-cleft; middle segment longer: stamens distant, nearly equal; cells of the anthers parallel. 42. 39—(mountain mint.) *S.*

Exotic.

Lavan″dula. Calyx ovate, sub-dentate; bracts under-studded: corolla resupinate: stamens in the tube. 42. 39—(lavender.)

Sature'ja. Calyx tubular, striate: corolla with divisions nearly equal: stamens distant. 42. 39—(savory.)

Southern.

B. *Calyx 2-lipped.*

Ori'ganum. Calyxes collected into a 4-sided strobile-like cone, with broad intervening bracts: corolla with the upper lip erect, flat, straight, emarginate: under lip 3-parted, divisions nearly equal. 42. 39—(marjoram.)

Prunel″la. Calyx with the upper lip dilated: filaments 2-forked, with an anther on one of the points: stigma 2-cleft. 42. 39—(self-heal, or heal-all.) *S.*

Scutella'ria. Calyx with an entire mouth, which is closed with a helmet-form lid after the corolla falls out: tube of the corolla bent 42. 39—(scull-cap.) *S.*

Trichoste'ma. Calyx resupinate: corolla with the upper lip falcate; and the under lip 3-parted, with the middle division small, oblong: filaments very long-exsert, incurved or coiled. 42. 39—(blue-curls.) *S.*

Exotic.

Thymus. Calyx sub-campanulate, with the throat closed with hairs: corolla with the upper lip flat, emarginate; lower lip longer. 42. 39—(thyme.)

Melis″sa. Calyx dry, flattish above, with the upper lip sub-fastigiate:

corolla with the upper lip somewhat vaulted, 3-cleft; lower lip with the middle lobe cordate. 42. 39—(balm.)

ORDER II. ANGIOSPERMIA.

A. *Calyx 2-cleft or 2-leaved.*

OBOLA'RIA. Calyx bract-like: corolla 4-cleft, bell-form: capsule 1-celled, 2-valved, many-seeded: stamens from the divisions of the corolla nearly equal: stigma 2-cleft or emarginate. 40. 35—(penny-wort.) *S.*

B. *Calyx 4-cleft.*

EUCHRO'MA. Calyx inflated, 2 or 4-cleft: corolla 2-lipped; upper lip long linear, embracing the style and stamens: anthers linear, with unequal lobes, cohering so as to form an oblong disk: capsule ovate, compressed, 2-celled: seeds numerous, surrounded with an inflated membrane. 40. 40. *S.*

BAR''TSIA. EUCHROMA? Calyx lobed, emarginate, coloured: corolla less than calyx; upper lip longest, concave, entire; lower lip 3-cleft and reflexed: anthers with equal lobes, not cohering: capsule 2-celled: seed angled. 40. 35.—(painted cup.)

MELAM''PYRUM. Corolla with the upper lip compressed, the margin folded back; lower lip grooved, 3-cleft, sub-equal: capsule 2-celled, oblique, dehiscent on one side: seeds 2, cylindric, gibbous, cartilaginous and smooth. 40. 35—(cow-wheat.) *S.*

Southern.

EUPHRA'SIA. Calyx cylindric: corolla 2-lipped; the upper lip 2-cleft; lower lip 3-lobed, with the divisions 2-cleft: lower anthers lobed, spinose. 40. 35—(eye-bright.)

C. *Calyx 4 or 5-cleft, or 5-toothed; plant without green herbage.*

EPIPH''EGUS. Polygamous. Calyx abbreviated, 5-toothed: corolla of the barren flowers ringent, compressed, 4-cleft: lower lip flat; of the fertile flowers minute, 4-toothed, caducous: capsule truncate, oblique, 1-celled, imperfectly two-valved, opening on one side. 40. 35—(beech drops, cancer root.)

D. *Calyx 5-leaved or 5-cleft: plant with green herbage.*

BIGNO'NIA. Calyx 5-toothed, cup-form, sub-coriaceous: corolla bell-form, 5-lobed, ventricose beneath: capsule silique-like, 2-celled: seed membrane-winged. 40. 45—(trumpet-flower.) *S.*

BUCHNE'RA. Calyx 5-toothed: corolla with a slender tube, and the limb in 5 equal divisions, the lobes cordate: capsule 2-celled. 40. 35—(blue hearts.) *S.*

ANTIRRHI'NUM. Calyx 5-leaved or deeply 5-parted; the two lower divisions remote; corolla personate or ringent, spurred, or with a prominent base; the throat closed with a prominent palate; capsule ovate, 2-valved, dehiscent at the apex, with reflexed teeth. 40. 40—(snap-dragon, toad-flax.) *S.*

GERAR''DIA. Calyx 5-cleft or 5-toothed: corolla sub-campanulate, unequally 5-lobed; segments mostly rounded: capsule 2-celled, dehiscent at the top. 40. 40—(false foxglove.) *S.*

PEDICULA'RIS. Calyx ventricose, 5-cleft or obliquely truncate: corolla ringent; upper lip arched, emarginate and compressed: capsule 2-celled, mucronate, oblique: seeds numerous, angular, coated. (Leaves many-cleft.) 40. 35—(lousewort, high heal-all.) *S.*

MI'MULUS. Calyx prismatic, 5-toothed: corolla ringent; upper lip folded back upon its sides, lower lip with a prominent palate: stigma thick, 2-cleft: capsule 2-celled, many-seeded; seeds minute. 40. 40—(monkey-flower.) *S.*

CHELO'NE. Calyx 5-cleft or 5-leaved, 3-bracted: corolla ringent, inflated: the upper lip emarginate-obtuse, under lip slightly 3-cleft; the rudiment of a smooth filament between, and shorter than the two tallest stamens; anthers woolly: capsule 2-celled, 2-valved: seeds with membranous margins. 40. 45—snake-head.) *S.*

PENTSTE'MON. Calyx 5-cleft or 5-leaved: corolla ringent, inflated: the rudiment of a bearded filament between, and longer than the two tallest stamens: anthers smooth: capsule 2-celled, 2-valved, ovate; seeds numerous, angular. (Taken from the last genus.) 40. 45—(beard tongue.) *S.*

Exotic.

DIGITA'LIS. Calyx 5-parted: corolla bell-form, ventricose, 5-cleft: stigma simple or bilamellate: capsule ovate, 2-celled.—(Flowers racemed.) 40. 40 —(foxglove)

CLASS XIV. TETRADYNAMIA.

ORDER I. SILICULOSA.

THLASPI. Calyx spreading, equal at the base: filaments distinct, without teeth: silicle compressed, emarginate, obcordate, many-seeded; valves resemble two boats with the keels outward. 39. 63—(shepherd's purse.) *S.*

LEPID''IUM. Calyx spreading: corolla regular: silicle emarginate, cordate or oval; cells 1-seeded; valves carinate, dehiscent; partition contrary. Cotyledons incumbent. 39. 63—(pepper-grass.) *S.*

COCHLEA'RIA. Silicle thick, rugose, many-seeded, 2-valved; valves gibbous, obtuse: partition nearly parallel to the valves. 39. 63—(horse-radish, water-radish.)

Exotic.

LUNA'RIA. Silicle entire, oval, flat-compressed, pedicelled; valves equalling the partition, parallel, flat: calyx consists of coloured sack-like leafets. 39. 63—(honesty, or satin-flower.)

ORDER II. SILIQUOSA.

CARDAMI'NE. Calyx leaves spreading but little: stigma entire: a single gland between each of the short stamens and the calyx: silique with truncate margins, linear, long, bursting elastically with revolute valves, narrower, but equalling the length of the partitions: seed with a slender funicule, not margined. 39. 63—(American water-cress.) *S.*

AR''ABIS. Glands 4, one within each leafet of the erect calyx, of the size of the reflected scale: silique compressed, torulose, sub-divaricate; valves flat, 1-nerved: seeds arranged in a single series. Cotyledons accumbent. 39. 63—(wall-cress.) *S.*

ERYS''IMUM. NASTURTIUM. Calyx and corolla spreading: silique bursting, not elastically; beak short and terete; valves nerveless, not keeled, straightish, concave. Cotyledons accumbent. 39. 63—(English water-cress, water-radish.) *S.*

CHEIRAN''THUS. Calyx closed, two of the leafets gibbous at the base: petals dilated: silique, when young with a glandular tooth each side: stigma 2-lobed; seed flat, sometimes margined. 39. 63—(stock-july-flower, wall-flower.) *S.*

SINA'PIS. Calyx spreading: corolla with straight claws: glands between the short stamens and pistil, and between the long stamens and calyx: partition extending beyond the valves of the silique, ensiform: seeds in a single series. Cotyledons conduplicate. 39. 63—(mustard.)

RAPHA'NUS. Calyx closed, setose: silique torose, terete, not opening by valves, 1 or 2-celled: glands between the short stamens and pistil, and between the long stamens and calyx. Cotyledons conduplicate. 39. 63—(radish.)

Exotic.

BRAS''SICA. Calyx erect, converging: partition extending beyond the valves of the silique: seed globose: glands between the short stamens and pistil, and between the long stamens and calyx. 39. 63—(cabbage, turnip.)

CLASS XV. MONADELPHIA.

ORDER III. TRIANDRIA.

SISYRIN''CHIUM. Spatha 2-leaved: perianth 0: corolla superior, 6-cleft or 6-petalled, tubular: style 1: stigma 3-cleft: capsule 3-celled. 6. 18—(blue-eyed grass.) *S.*

ORDER V. PENTANDRIA.

PASSIFLO'RA. Calyx 5-parted, coloured: corolla 5-petalled, on the calyx: nectary, a triple filamentous crown within the petals: gourd-like berry, pedicelled. 34. 97—(passion-flower.) *S.*

Exotic.

Ero'dium. Calyx 5-leaved: corolla 5-petalled: nectariferous scales 5, alternating with the filaments: arils 5, 1-seeded, awned; beaked at the base of the receptacle; awn spiral, bearded within. (Taken from geranium.) 14. 73—(stork's bill.)

ORDER VII. HEPTANDRIA.

Exotic.

Pelargo'nium. Calyx 5-parted, upper division broader, ending in a capillary nectariferous tube: corolla 5-petalled, irregular; the two upper petals usually broader, with coloured veins: filaments 10, three of them usually without anthers: arils 5, each 1-seeded, awned; some of the awns spiral. 14. 73—(stork geranium.)

ORDER X. DECANDRIA.

Gera'nium. Calyx 5-leaved: corolla 5-petalled, regular: nectariferous glands 5, adhering to the base of the 5 alternating long filaments: arils 5, 1-seeded, awned, beaked at the elongated top of the receptacle: awn naked or smooth within, straight. 14. 73—(cranebill, false crowfoot, herb-robert.) *S.*

Southern.

Aca'cia Mimosa. Polygamous. Calyx tubular, 5-toothed: petals 5: stamens 5 to 10, exsert: pod 1-celled, 2-valved. 33. 93.

ORDER XII. POLYANDRIA.

Sida. Calyx simple, angular 5-cleft: style many-parted: capsules many, arranged circularly, 1-celled, 1 or 3-seeded. (Pedicel articulated under the apex.) 37. 74—(indian mallows.) *S.*

Althæ'a. Calyx double, outer one 6 or 9-cleft: capsules many, arranged circularly, 1-seeded. 37. 74—(hollyhock.)

Malva. Calyx double, outer one 3-leaved, inner one 5-cleft: capsules many, arranged circularly, 1-celled, 1-seeded. 37. 74—(mallows.) S.

Hibis''cus. Calyx double, outer one many leaved; inner one about 5-cleft: stigmas 5: capsule 5 or 10-celled, many seeded. 37. 74—(marsh mallows.) *S.*

Exotic.

Gossyp''ium. Calyx double, outer one 3-cleft: capsule 4-celled: seeds involved in wool. 37. 74—(cotton.)

CLASS XVI. DIADELPHIA.

ORDER V. PENTANDRIA, TO ORDER VIII. OCTANDRIA, OR PENT-OCTANDRIA.

Coryda'lis. Diclytra. Calyx 2-leaved: corolla ringent, 1 or 2-spurred at the base: filaments 2, membranaceous, each with 3 anthers: capsules silique-like, 2-valved, compressed, many-seeded. In some species the stamens are separate, with broad membranaceous bases. 24. 62—(colic-weed.) *S.*

Fuma'ria. Calyx 2-leaved, caducous: corolla irregular; spurred or gibbous at the base of one petal: filaments 2, each with three anthers; capsule or silicle drupe-like, 1-celled, 1-seeded, not opening by valves: seeds affixed to the side of the cell. 24. 62—(fumitory.) *S.*

Polyga'la. Calyx 5-leaved, permanent, unequal, 2 of the leafets wing-like, larger, coloured: corolla irregular, (or rather, calyx 3-leaved, corolla imperfectly papilionaceous:) capsule obcordate, 2-celled, 2-valved. Keel of the corolla sometimes appendaged: seeds hairy. 33. 35—(snake root, milk-wort, low centaury, mountain flax.) *S.*

ORDER X. DECANDRIA.

A. *Legume without transverse divisions or partitions; seeds numerous.*

(*Stigma pubescent.*)

Pisum. Calyx with the divisions leaf-like, about equal: banner protruding 2 folds: style compressed, carinate, villose above: legume without down at the suture. 32. 93—(pea.)

La'thyrus. Calyx with the two upper divisions shorter: style flat, villose above, broader towards the top. (Stems mostly winged, leafets 2 or more, terminated by a divided tendril.) 32. 93—(sweet pea.) *S.*

Vic''ia Calyx emarginate above, 2-toothed; 3 straight, long teeth below: banner emarginate: style bearded transversely on the lower side beneath the stigma. 32. 93—(vetch.) *S.*

(*Stigma not pubescent.*)

Phase'olus. Keel, stamens and style spirally twisted together: legume compressed, falcate: seeds sub-compressed, reniform. 32. 93—(bean.) *S.*

Strophosty'les. Glycine. Keel, stamens and style spirally twisted together: legume terete, with a longitudinal half-breadth partition, attached to one edge: seed reniform, sub-cylindric. 32. 93—(wild bean.) *S.*

A'pios. Glyci'ne. Calyx somewhat 2-lipped, truncate, 1-toothed: keel of the corolla falcate, bending back the apex of the banner: germ sheathed at the base: legume coriaceous, many seeded. 32. 93—(ground-nut.) *S.*

Amphicar''pa. Calyx bell-form, 4-toothed, obtuse and naked at the base: petals oblong, banner broader, close-pressed upon other petals, sub-sessile: stigma capitate: legume flat, stiped; seeds 2 to 4. 32. 93—(wild bean-vine.) *S.*

Robi'nia. Calyx small, bell-form, 4-cleft, upper division 2-parted: banner large, reflexed, roundish: legume compressed, elongated, many-seeded: seeds compressed, small. 32. 93—(locust-tree.) *S.*

Exotic.

Colu'tea. Calyx 5-cleft with the keel obtuse: style bearded on its back through its whole length: legume inflated, opening on the upper suture at the base. 32. 93—(bladder senna, bush locust.)

Southern.

Indigof''era. Calyx spreading: keel with a subulate spur both sides; legume linear, small, terete or quadrangular. 32. 93—(indigo.)

B. *Legume without transverse divisions or partitions; seeds few, or single.*

Melilo'tus. Flowers racemed: calyx tubular, 5-toothed: keel simple, shorter than the wings and banner: legume rugose, longer than the calyx, or about as long. (Taken from the trifolium.) 32. 93—(melilot clover.) *S.*

Trifo'lium. Flowers sub-capitate: legume included in the calyx, not opening ~~by valves, 1 to 4-see~~ded. (Leaves always ternate.) 32. 93—(clover.) *S.*

C. *Fruit or loment in several joints, or in a single-seeded piece.*

Hedys''arum. Calyx 5-cleft: keel of corolla transversely obtuse: loment many-jointed; joints 1-seeded, truncate, compressed, generally hispid. Plants mostly with ternate leaves. 32. 93—(bush clover.) *S.*

Exotic.

Coronil'la. Calyx 2-lipped: petals with claws: loment teretish, jointed: flowers in umbels: seeds generally cylindric. 32. 93—(coronilla.)

D. *Stamens united in one set.*

Amor''pha. Calyx somewhat bell-form, 4 or 5-cleft: banner ovate, concave: wings and keel 0: legume 1 or 2-seeded, falcate. 32. 93—(false-indigo.) *S.*

Lupi'nus. Calyx 2-lipped: anthers, 5 oblong and 5 roundish: legume coriaceous, torulose. 32. 93—(lupine.) *S.*

Crotala'ria. Corolla with the banner cordate, large keel acuminate, the 4 membrane formed by the united filament, has a fissure on the back: style curved: legume pedicelled, turgid. 32. 93—(rattle box.) *S.*

CLASS XVII. SYNGENESIA.

ORDER I. POLYGAMIA AEQUALIS.

A. *Florets ligulate.*

Cicho'rium. Calyx calycled: egret plumose, sessile, unequal: (Torrey;) many-leaved, chaffy: (Persoon;) receptacle somewhat chaffy. 49. 53—(succory or endive.)

Leon'todon. Calyx double, imbricate, with flexible leafets: receptacle naked: egret stiped. 49. 53—(dandelion.) *S.*

Prenan''thes. Florets from 5 to 20, in a simple series, (or in one [illegible]cular row;) calyx calycled: receptacle naked: egret simple, sub-sessile. 49. 53—(white lettuce.) *S.*

Lactu'ca. Calyx imbricate, cylindric, with the margin of the scales membranaceous: receptacle naked: egret simple, stiped: seed smooth. 49. 53—(lettuce.) *S.*

Hierac''ium. Calyx imbricate, ovate: egret simple, sessile: receptacle naked, punctate, or sub-pilose. (From white becoming yellowish.) 49. 53—(hawk-weed.) *S.*

Exotic.

Tragopo'gon. Calyx simple, many-leaved: receptacle naked: egret plumose and stiped. 49. 53—(goat's-beard, vegetable oyster.)

B. *Florets tubulous: flower capitate.*

Arc''tium. Calyx globose, with scales hooked at the apex: egret chaff-bristly: receptacle chaffy. 49. 54—(burdock.) *S.*

Cnicus. Calyx swelling, imbricate, with prickly scales: receptacle villose: egret caducous, plumose. 49. 54—(thistle.) *S.*

Car''duus. Calyx ovate, imbricate with prickly scales: receptacle villose: egret pilose. 49. 54—(comb-tooth thistle.)

Exotic.

Car''thamus. Calyx ovate, imbricate with scales, ovatish-leafy at the apex: egret chaff-hairy or none: receptacle chaff-bristley. 49. 54—(false saffron.)

Cyn''ara. Receptacle bristly: calyx dilated, imbricate, scales with fleshy bases, emarginate and pointed: egret plumose, sessile. 49. 54—(garden artichoke.)

C. *Florets tubulous; flower discoid.*

Eupato'rium. Calyx imbricated (rarely simple) oblong: style long, cloven half way down: egret pilose, scabrous, or rough papillose: receptacle naked: seed smooth and glandular, 5-striate. 49. 55—(boneset, thoroughwort, joe-pye.) *S.*

ORDER II. POLYGAMIA SUPERFLUA.

A. *Flowers discoid; the ray-florets being obsolete.*

Tanace'tum. Calyx imbricate, hemispheric: scales acuminate: rays obsolete, 3-cleft: egret somewhat marginal: receptacle naked. (Flowers corymbed.) 49. 55—(tansey.)

Artemi'sia. Calyx imbricate, ovate, with scales rounded, converging: ray-florets subulate: egret 0: receptacle somewhat villose, or nakedish. (Flowers mostly rounded.) 49. 55 (wormwood, southern-wood.) *S.*

Gnapha'lium. Calyx imbricate, with the marginal scales rounded, scarious, shortish, glossy, coloured: receptacle naked: egret pilose or plumose, scabrous: florets of the ray subulate, of the disk entire. Sometimes all the florets are perfect. 49. 55—(life everlasting.) *S.*

B. *Flowers radiate; the ligulate ray florets very manifest.*

(*Receptacle naked.*)

In''ula. Calyx imbricate, generally squarrose: egret simple, scabrous, sometimes a minute, exterior, chaffy one: anthers ending in 2 bristles at the base: ray-florets numerous. Ray-florets always yellow. 49. 55—(elecampane.)

Aster. Calyx imbricate, the inferior scales generally spreading: egret simple, pilose: receptacle often deep-pitted. Florets of the ray more than 10, except in solidaginoides, and a few other species; colour, purple or white, never yellow. 49. 55—(star-flower.) *S.*

Solida'go. Calyx oblong or sub-cylindric, with oblong, narrow, pointed straight scales, imbricate, closed upon the flower: ray-florets about 5, and fewer than 10, lanceolate, 2-toothed, equal to, or shorter than, the calyx: filaments capillary, very short: style thread-form, equalling the length of the stamens, stigma cleft, spreading: egret simple, pilose, scabrous: receptacle furrowed with dots or punctures: seeds oblong-ovate.. (yellow.) 49. 55—(golden rod.) *S.*

Tussila'go. Calyx simple, swelling; scales equal, and equalling the disk, sub membranous: pistillate florets ligulate or without teeth: egret simple, sessile. 49. 55—(Sometimes polygamous.)—(coltsfoot.)

CHRYSAN″THEMUM. Calyx hemispherical, imbricate, with the scales membraneous at the margin: egret none, or a narrow margin. 49. 55—(ox-eyed daisy, fever-few.) *S.*

Exotic.

BELLIS. Calyx hemispherical; scales equal: egret 0: receptacle conical: seed obovate. 49. 55—(garden daisy.)

TAGE′TES. Calyx simple, 1-leafed, 5-toothed, tubular: florets of the ray about 5, permanent: egret 5 erect awns. 49. 55—(marygold.)

(*Receptacle chaffy or hairy.*)

AN″THEMIS. Calyx hemispherical; scales with scarious margins, nearly equal: egret 0, or a membranous margin: florets of the ray more than 5: receptacle chaffs flat, with a rigid acuminate apex: seed crowned with a membranous border, or egret. 49. 55—(may-weed, chamomile.) *S.*

ACHILLE′A. Calyx imbricate, ovate, unequal: egret 0: florets of the ray 5 to 10, roundish, dilated. (Flowers corymbed.) 49. 55—(yarrow.) *S.*

HELIOP″SIS. Calyx imbricate, with ovate-linear lined scales: ray-florets linear, large: receptacle chaffy, conic; the chaffs lanceolate: seeds 4-sided: egret 0. 49. 55—(sun-ray.) *S.*

HELE′NIUM. Calyx 1-leaved, many-parted: egret 5-awned, chaffy leaves: receptacle globose, naked in the disk, and chaffy in the ray only: florets of the ray half-3-cleft: seed villose. (Leaves decurrent.) 49. 55—(false sunflower.) *S.*

ORDER III. POLYGAMIA FRUSTRANEA.

HELIAN″THUS. Calyx imbricate, sub-squarrose, leafy: receptacle flat, chaffy: egret 2-leaved, chaff-like, caducous. 49. 55—(sunflower, jerusalem artichoke.) *S.*

RUDBECK″IA. Calyx consisting of a double order of leafets or scales: receptacle chaffy, conic: egret a 4-toothed margin, or 0. 49. 55—(cone-flower.) *S.*

Exotic.

CENTA′UREA. Calyx various, mostly imbricate, roundish: egret simple, various: receptacle bristly: corollas of the ray, funnel-shape, longer, irregular. 49. 54—(blue-bottle, blessed thistle.)

ORDER IV. POLYGAMIA NECESSARIA.

Exotic.

CALEN″DULA. Calyx many-leaved, equal: receptacle naked: egret none: seeds of the disk membranaceous. 49. 55—(pot marygold.)

ORDER V. POLYGAMIA SEGREGATA

ELEPHAN″TOPUS. Partial calyx 4-flowered: florets 5-cleft, ligulate, perfect: receptacle naked: down setaceous. 49. 55—(elephant-foot.) *S.*

CLASS XVIII. GYNANDRIA.

ORDER I. MONANDRIA.

A. *Anther adnate, sub-terminal, not caducous; masses of pollen affixed by the base, and made up of angular particles.*

ORCHIS. Corolla ringent-like, upper petal vaulted: lip dilated, spurred beneath: masses of pollen 2, adnate, terminal. 7. 21—(orchis.) *S.*

B. *Anther parallel with the stigma, not caducous; masses of pollen affixed to the summit of the stigma, and made up of farinaceous or angular particles.*

GOODYE′RA. Corolla ringent-like, the 5 lower petals placed under the gibbous lip, which is undivided above: style free; constituent particles of the masses of pollen angular. 7. 21—(rattlesnake-leaf, scrophula weed.) *S.*

C. *Anther inserted, terminal, not caducous; masses of pollen farinaceous or angular.*

POGO'NIA. Petals 5, distinct, without glands: lip sessile, cowled, crested internally: pollen farinaceous. 7. 21—(snake-mouth.) *S.*

CYMBID''IUM. Petals 5, distinct: lip behind, (or inverted,) unguiculate: the lamina bearded: style free: pollen angular. 7. 21—(grass pink.) *S.*

ARETHU'SA. Petals 5, connate at the base: lip below, growing to the style, cowled above, crested within: pollen angular. 7. 21—(arethusa.) *S.*

ORDER II. DIANDRIA.

CYPRIPE'DIUM. Calyx coloured, 4-leaved, spreading: corolla 0, (by some the calyx is called a corolla:) nectary large, hollow, inflated: style with a terminal lobe, and petal-like appendage on the upper side. 7. 21—(ladies' slipper. *S.*)

ORDER V. PENTANDRIA.

* *Plants bearing seeds in follicles; and pollen in masses, called pollinia.*

ASCLE'PIAS. Petals 5, reflexed: nectaries 5, concave, erect, containing little horns: each stamen with a pair of pendulous masses of pollen, suspended from the top of the stigma: follicles smooth. 30. 47—(milk-weed, silk-weed.) *S.*

APOC''YNUM. Corolla bell-form: stamens with converging anthers, proceeding from the middle of the stigma and alternating with 5 nectaries: stigma thick, almost sessile; follicles in pairs, long-linear. 30. 47—(dogbane, Indian hemp.) *S.*

ORDER VI. HEXANDRIA.

ARISTOLO'CHIA. Calyx 0: corolla superior, 1-petalled, ligulate, inflated at the base: capsule 6-celled, many-seeded. 11. 23—(birthwort.) *S.*

CLASS XIX. MONŒCIA.

ORDER III. TRIANDRIA.

TYPHA. Ament cylindric, dense-flowered. Staminate flowers—calyx obsolete, 3-leaved: corolla 0: stamens 3 together, on a chaffy or hairy receptacle, united below into one. Pistillate flowers—below the staminate: calyx 0: corolla 0: seed 1, pedicelled; the pedicels surrounded at the base with long hairs resembling egret. 3. 8—(cat-tail, or reed mace.) *S.*

CAREX. Aments imbricate, (usually in cylindric spikes.) Staminate flowers—calyx-scales single: corolla 0. Pistillate flowers—calyx scales single: corolla inflated, monopetalous, 2-toothed at the apex: stigmas 2 or 3: nut 3-sided, enclosed in the inflated, permanent corolla, which becomes an utriculus-like permanent aril. Sometimes diœcious. 3. 9—(sedge.) *S.*

COMPTO'NIA. Staminate flowers—ament cylindric, with calyx-scales 1-flowered: corolla 2-petalled or none: filaments 2-forked. Pistillate flowers—spike or ament ovate: corolla 6-petalled, (the corolla may be called a calyx:) styles 2: nut oval, 1-celled. 50. 99—(sweet fern.) *S.*

Exotic.

COIX. Staminate flowers—in remote spikes: calyx-glume 2-flowered, awnless: corolla-glume awnless. Pistillate flowers—calyx-glume 2-flowered: corolla-glume awnless: style 2-parted: seed covered with the bone-like calyx. 4. 10—(job's tear.)

Southern.

ZEA. Staminate flowers—calyx-glume 2-flowered, awnless: corolla-glume awnless. Pistillate flowers—calyx-glume 2-valved, (number of valves increased by cultivation:) style 1, very long, filiform, pendulous: seed solitary, immersed in an oblong receptacle. 4. 10—(indian corn.)

ORDER IV. TETRANDRIA.

ALNUS. Staminate flowers—ament composed of wedge-form, truncate, 3-flowered receptacles: calyx a scale, 3-lobed: corolla 4-parted. Pistillate flowers—calyx 2-flowered scales, somewhat 3-cleft: corolla 0: seed compressed, ovate, wingless. 50. 99—(alder.) *S.*

UR''TICA. Staminate flowers—calyx 4-leaved: corolla 0: nectary central, cyathiform. Pistillate flowers—calyx 2-leaved, (2-valved ?) corolla 0: seed 1, glossy. 53. 98—(nettle.) S.

MORUS. Staminate flowers—calyx 4-parted: corolla 0. Pistillate flowers—calyx 4-leaved: corolla 0: styles 2: calyx becoming berry-like: seed 1. 53. 98—(mulberry.) S.

ORDER V. PENTANDRIA.

AMARAN''THUS. Staminate flowers—calyx 3 or 5-leaved: corolla 0: stamens 3 or 5. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla as the staminate: styles 3: capsule 1-celled, opening transversely: seed 1. 54. 30—(amaranth, red cockscomb.) S.

AMBRO'SIA. Staminate flowers—common calyx 1-leaved: anthers in contact, but not united: corolla 1-petalled, 5 cleft, funnel-form: receptacle naked. Pistillate flowers—calyx 1-leaved, entire, the swelling part 5-toothed, 1-flowered: corolla 0: nut from the indurated calyx 1-seeded. 54. 98—(hog-weed.) S.

ORDER XII. POLYANDRIA.

A. *Stems not woody.*

SAGITTA'RIA. Staminate flowers—calyx 3-leaved: corolla 3-petalled: filaments mostly 24. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla as in the staminate: germs many: capsules aggregate, 1-seeded, not opening. 5. 13—(arrow-head.) S.

ARUM. Spatha cucullate, 1-leaved: spadix not entirely covered with the fructification; being more or less naked above, with pistillate flowers beneath, and staminate in the middle; (sometimes a few are staminate beneath: berry mostly 1-seeded, generally cirrose-glandular beneath.) 2. 7—(indian turnip, wake-robin.) S.

CALLA. Spatha ovate, becoming expanded: spadix covered with the fructification: stamens intermixed. Staminate flowers—calyx and corolla 0: anthers sessile. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla 0: berries 1-celled, many-seeded, crowned with the short style. 2. 7—(water arum.)

EUPHOR''BIA. Involucrum perianth-like, inflated, with alternating petal-like segments. Staminate florets 12 or more, at the base of the stipe of the pistillate flower, each consisting of an anther united to a pedicel by a filament. Pistillate flower central, single, stiped; with 3 two-cleft styles: capsule 3-lobed. 38. 96—(caper, spurge.) S.

Exotic.

POTE'RIUM. Staminate flowers—calyx 4-leaved: corolla 4-parted: stamens 30 to 50. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla like the staminate: pistils 2: berry from the indurated tube of the corolla. 54. 92—(burnet.)

B. *Stems woody.*

QUERCUS. Staminate flowers—ament loose: calyx sub-5-cleft: corolla none: stamens 5 to 10. Pistillate flowers—calyx 1-leafed, entire, scabrous, being a woody cup: style one, stigma 2 to 5: nut or acorn 1-celled, 1 seeded, coriaceous, surrounded at the base by the permanent calyx. 50. 99—(oak.) S.

COR''YLUS. Staminate flowers—ament cylindric, imbricate: calyx a 3-cleft scale: pericarp none: stamens about 8. Pistillate flowers—calyx 2-parted, lacerated: stigmas 2: nut ovate, surrounded by and included in the permanent leaf-like calyx. 50. 99—(hazlenut.) S.

FAGUS. Staminate flowers—ament roundish: calyx 5 or 6-cleft, bell-form: stamens 5 to 12. Pistillate flowers—calyx 4-toothed, setose: germs 2: nuts 2, inclosed in the calyx, becoming coriaceous echinate. 50. 99—(beech.) S.

CASTA'NEA. Polygamous. Staminate flowers—ament naked, linear: corolla (or calyx) 1-leaved, 5 or 6-parted: stamens 10 to 20. Pistillate flowers—calyx 5 or 6-leaved, (or 5 or 6-lobed) muricate; germs 3: stigma pencil-form: nuts 3, with coriaceous putamen, enclosed in the calyx, becoming echinate. 50. 99—(chesnut.) S.

BET''ULA. Staminate flowers—ament cylindric, imbricate, scales peltate, 3-flowered: stamens 10 to 12. Pistillate flowers—calyx a 2 or 3-flowered scale: seed 1, winged. 50. 99—(birch.) S.

PLAT''ANUS. Ament globose. Staminate flowers—corolla none or scarcely apparent, anthers growing around the filaments. Pistillate flowers—calyx many-leaved: style with a recurved stigma: seed roundish, crowned with the mucronate style, with egret-like hairs at the base. 50. 99—(button-wood, false sycamore.) S.

JUGLANS. Staminate flowers—ament imbricate: calyx a scale, generally

5-parted: corolla 4 or 5-parted: stamens 18 to 36. Pistillate flowers—calyx 4-cleft, superior: corolla 4-cleft or 4-parted: styles 1 or 2; drupe partly spongy: nut rugose and irregularly furrowed. 50. 94—(butternut, black walnut.) *S.*

Car″ya. Staminate flowers—ament imbricate: calyx 3-parted scales: corolla 0: stamens 4 to 6. Pistillate flowers—calyx 4-cleft, superior: corolla 0: styles 0: stigma disk-like, 4-lobed: pericarp 4-valved: nut sub-quadrangular, even. 50. 94—(hickory, walnut.) *S.*

ORDER XV. MONADELPHIA.

A. *Stems not woody.*

Momor″dica. Staminate flowers—calyx 5 or 6-cleft: corolla 5 or 6-parted: filaments 3. Pistillate flowers—style 3-cleft: berry gourd-like and bursting elastically: seeds compressed. 34. 97—(balsam apple, wild cucumber.)

Exotic.

Cuc″umis. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-toothed: corolla 5-parted: filaments 3. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla like the staminate: stigmas 3, thick, 2-parted: berry with sharpish seeds. 34. 97—(cucumber, musk-melon.)

Cucur′bita. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-toothed: corolla 5-cleft: filaments 3. Pistillate flowers—calyx and corolla like the staminate: pistil 3-cleft: pomaceous berry large, 3 to 5-celled: seeds thickened at the margin. 34. 97—(gourd, squash, pumpkin, water-melon.)

Rici′nus. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-parted: stamens numerous. Pistillate flowers—calyx 3-parted: styles 3, 2-cleft: capsules echinate, 3-celled, 3-seeded. 38. 96—(palma christi, or castor oil plant.)

B. *Stems woody.*

Pinus. Staminate flowers—calyx 4-leaved, peltate: corolla 0: stamens many: anthers naked, 2, sessile, 1-celled. Pistillate flowers—calyx in strobiles or cones, scales closely imbricate, 2-flowered: pistil 1: nut wih a membranaceous wing. (Perhaps more properly a samara.) 51. 100—(pine.) *S.*

Cupres″sus. Staminate flowers—ament ovate, imbricate: calyx a peltate scale: corolla 0: anthers 4, sessile. Pistillate flowers—ament strobilaceous: calyx a 1-flowered peltate scale; corolla none: germs 4 to 8, under each scale of the calyx: nuts angular, compressed. 51. 100—(white cedar.) *S.*

CLASS XX. DIOECIA.

ORDER II. DIANDRIA.

Salix. Staminate flowers—ament cylindric: calyx a 1-flowered scale, with a nectariferous gland at the base: stamens 1 to 6. Pistillate flowers—ament and calyx like the staminate: stigmas 2: generally 2-cleft: capsule 1-celled, 2-valved: seeds many, with egret-like down. 50. 99—(willow.) *S.*

Frax″inus. Polygamous. Perfect flowers—calyx 0, or 3 or 4-parted: corolla 0, or 4 petalled: pistil 1: samara 1-seeded, with a lanceolate wing. Pistillate flowers—calyx, corolla and pistils same as perfect. 44. 37—(ash.) *S.*

ORDER III. TRIANDRIA.

Exotic.

Ficus. Common receptacle fleshy, (becoming the fruit,) enclosing the apetalous florets; both staminate and pistillate, either in the same, or in distinct individuals. Staminate flowers—calyx 3-parted. Pistillate flowers—calyx 5-parted: pistil 1, lateral: seed 1, covered with the closed, permanent, somewhat fleshy calyx 53. 98—(fig-tree.)

ORDER IV. TETRANDRIA.

Viscum. Staminate flowers—calyx 4-parted: corolla 0: anthers sessile, adhering to the calyx. Pistillate flowers—calyx 4-leaved, superior: corolla 0: style 0: berry 1-seeded, globose: seed cordate: (parasitic, adhering to trees.) 43. 58—(misseltoe.) *S.*

ORDER V. PENTANDRIA.

Zanthox″ylum. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-parted: corolla 0: stamens 3 to 6. Pistillate flowers—pistils 3 to 5: capsules equal to the number of pistils, 1-seeded. 46. 94—prickly ash, or tooth-ache tree.) *S.*

Hum″ulus. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-leaved: corolla 0: anthers with 2 pores at the extremity. Pistillate flowers—calyx 1-leafed, entire, oblique, spreading: styles 2: seed 1, within the leaf-like calyx: inflorescence strobile-form. 53. 98—(hop.) *S.*

Exotic.

Can″nabis. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-parted. Pistillate flowers—calyx 5-leaved, entire, gaping laterally: styles 2: nut 2-valved, within the closed calyx. 53. 98—(hemp.)

Spina′cia. Staminate flowers—calyx 5-parted: corolla 0. Pistillate flowers—styles 4: seed 1, within the indurated calyx. 12. 29—(spinach.)

ORDER VIII. OCTANDRIA.

Po′pulus. Staminate flowers—ament cylindric, calyx a torn scale: corolla turbinate, oblique, entire, supporting 8 to 30 stamens. Pistillate flowers—ament, calyx and corolla like the staminate: stigma 4 or 6-lobed: capsule 2-celled, 2-valved, many-seeded: seed with egret-like hairs. (Leaves having a tremulous motion.) 50. 99—(poplar, balm of gilead.) *S.*

CLASS XXI. CRYPTOGAMIA.

ORDER I. FILICES.

A. *Capsule having an elastic ring at right angles with its opening.*

Polypo′dium. Capsules disposed in round scattered fruit dots, (or clusters of capsules,) on various parts of the lower surface of the frond: involucrum none. 55. 5—(polypod.) *S.*

Aspid″ium. Capsules in scattered roundish fruit-dots on various parts of the whole lower surface of the frond: involucrum a kidney-form or round membrane, fastened to the frond in or near the centre of the fruit-dot, and opening on all sides, or to one side of the fruit-dot, and opening on the other. (The involucrum, when a little opened, is often peltate.) 55. 5—(shield-fern.) *S.*

Pteris. Capsules arranged in a continued line along the very margin of the frond: involucras opening inwards, being formed of the inflexed margins of the fronds. (When the leaves are extremely small, the rows of capsules on opposite sides meet and cover the lower surface.) 55. 5—(brake.) *S.*

Adian″tum. Capsules disposed in oblong fruit-dots, arranged along the margin of the frond: involucrum is formed by turning back the margin of the frond over the capsules, and it opens inwards. (The lines of oblong spots are generally along that margin, which may be considered the end of the leaf, or of the segments of the leaf.) 55. 5—(maidenhair.) *S.*

Onocle′a. Fruit-dots indeterminate, presenting a berry-like appearance; capsules covering the whole lower surface of the frond: involucrum formed by turning in or rolling back the margin of the leaf, which opens inwards, in maturity, towards the midrib, or remains closed. The fertile leaves are contracted and narrower than the barren ones. 55. 5—(sensitive polypod.) *S.*

B. *Capsule without a ring—being cellular-reticulate, pellucid, sub-striate, radiate at the tip.*

Osmun″da. Capsules globose, pedicelled, radiate-striate or wrinkled, having a hinge at the joining of the two valves, which resembles part of the jointed ring of annulated ferns: the capsules either occupy the whole frond, to a limited extent, or a panicled raceme. (The parts of the frond occupied by the fruit are always more contracted than the barren parts.) 55. 5—(flowering fern.) *S.*

D. *Sub-order,* Apteres—*without pinnate, pinnatifid, or other winged, leaves.*

Lycopo′dium. Capsules mostly kidney-form or roundish, 2 or 4-valved, opening elastically; they are placed under separate scales in a spike, or sometimes in the axils of leaves. (Leafy, their stems being generally covered with 2, 3, or 4 rows of narrow, simple, entire leaves. 55. 5—(ground-pine.) *S.*

Equise′tum. Fruit placed under peltate polygons, being pileus-like bodies, which are arranged in whorls, forming a spike-form raceme; 4 to 7 spiral filaments surround the seed (probably,) which resemble green globules. (Fertile plants mostly leafless; the stem of all are jointed with toothed sheaths at every joint, and usually longitudinally striated and hollow.) 55. 5 —(scouring rush, horsetail.) *S.*

ORDER II. MUSCI.*

Fun'aria. Teeth of the outer peristome 16, cohering together at the apex, and twisted obliquely; the inner peristome consists of 16 membranaceous cilia, opposite to the teeth, lying flatly. 56. 4.

Polytri'chum. Peristome very short; teeth 16, 32, or 64: mouth of the germ covered by a dry membrane, which is connected to it by the teeth of the peristome: calyptre very small, with a large villose or hairy covering. 56. 4.

ORDER III. HEPATICÆ.

Marchan''tia. Receptacles pedicelled, radiate-lobed, disk-like or bell-form, with the inside downwards, to which the globose 4-valved capsules are attached, with their apexes downwards. The umbrella-like receptacle is elevated one or two inches by a stipe attached to the centre of its lower side, among the capsules and many pilose appendages. The frond is leafy, reticulate, furnished with a midrib, and beset with villose roots on the under side, which attach themselves to the stones in brooks, to damp earth, &c. 57. 3.

Jungerman''nia. Capsules 4-valved, globose, elevated by peduncles or stipes from within a bell-form calyx. The fronds are made up of finer leaves than those of the Marchantia, and are often mistaken for mosses, among which they generally grow. 57. 3.

ORDER IV. ALGÆ.

A. *The section* **Fucoideæ** *comprises those sea-weeds of the old genus Fucus, whose fronds are cartilaginous or leathery, and of an olive or copper colour, becoming brown or black. They are composed of interwoven longitudinal fibres. The floating vesicles appear like portions of the frond blown up in bubbles.*

Fucus. Receptacles tubercled; the tubercles perforated, nourishing aggregated capsules within, intermixed with articulated fibres. 57. 2.

B. *The section* **Florideæ** *comprises those sea-weeds of the old genus Fucus, whose fronds are leathery, membranous or gelatinous, and of a purple or rose colour.*

Halyme'nia. Frond membranaceous, leathery, nerveless, punctate: seed immersed throughout the whole frond, disposed in spots. 57. 2.

C. *The section* **Ulvoideæ** *comprises the plants of the old genus Ulva. Fronds membranaceous,* (broad, or in narrow slips,) *thin, of a grass-green colour. Their substance consists of cells, with the fruit immersed in the frond.* They grow on rocks, stones, shells, &c. in the sea; also in ditches, stagnant waters, damp woods, &c. 57. 2.

Ulva. Seeds in fours, immersed in every part of the membranaceous frond. 57. 2.

D *The section* **Confervoideæ** *comprises the plants of the old genus Conferva. Fruit capsular or naked granulations. Fronds filiform and geniculate, containing the fruit immersed in them, generally strung on threads; mostly of a grass-green or greenish colour, sometimes purple.* They grow in fresh water streams, springs, ditches, and stagnant waters; sometimes in damp woods, and some in the sea.

Confer''va. Filaments articulated, uniform, simple or branched; containing the seed within them. No external fruit. 57. 2.

E. *The section* **Tremellinæ** *comprises the old genus Tremella. Plants of this section are all gelatinous, hyaline, and covered with a membrane. They are globose, palmate, or filiform; and contain conferva-like filaments within. Colour green or purplish. They resemble Confervoideæ in habit and place of growth.*

Nostoc. Filaments monili-form, constituted from coadunate globules.

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* Mosses may be gathered whenever the capsules have arrived to their usual size; but they must be put in a closet, until the lids of the capsules become reddish-brown, before they are examined; then the lids may be removed, and the teeth examined.

Frond bullate, vesicular, (at length becoming flattened,) crowded with simple, monili-form, curve-crisped filaments. 57. 2.

ORDER V. LICHENES.

Gyroph''ora. Frond foliaceous, coriaceous-cartilaginous, peltate, monophyllous, (when luxuriant, polyphyllous,) free beneath: receptacles (buttons) somewhat shield-form, sessile-adnate, clothed with a dark membranaceous cartilage, including a somewhat solid parenchymous substance: disk warty or circinal, plicate and margined. 57. 2.

Parme'lia. Frond coriaceous, sub-membranaceous, flat, expanded, close-pressed, orbicular, stellate and lobed, or multifid-laciniate, having fibres beneath: receptacle shield-form, sub-membranaceous, formed under-side from the frond, free, with a central puncture by which it is affixed; seed-bearing lamina forming the disk, concave, coloured, covering the whole receptacle above, within similar, sub-cellular and striate, cut round, inflexed with a frond-like margin. 57. 2.

Cetra'ria. Frond cartilaginous or membranaceous, ascending or expanded; lobe-laciniate, smooth and naked both sides: receptacles (targets) shield-like obliquely attached to the margin of the frond, the lower free, being separated from it, the upper one sessile; seed-bearing lamina forming the disk coloured, plano-concave, within similar or cellular-striate, surrounded with a frond-like inflexed margin. 57. 2.

Cenomy'ce. Frond crusty or cartilaginous, foliaceous, laciniate, sub-imbricate, free, (rarely adnate;) bearing sub-fistulous peduncles (*podetia*,) both barren and fertile: receptacles (knobs) orbicular, without margins, at length convex and capitate, inflated or empty beneath, terminal, attached to the peduncles by their peripheries; seed-bearing lamina forming the receptacle above thickish, coloured, similar within, convex, reflexed and attached at the periphery, invested beneath with the woolly integument of the frond. 57. 2.

Bæmy'ces. Frond crustaceous, flat, expanded, adnate: bearing soft, solid, fertile peduncles (*podetia*:) receptacles (knobs) capitate, without margins, solid, terminal, sessile on the peduncles; seed-bearing lamina covering the whole receptacle and adnate to it, convex-reflexed, thickish, coloured, similar within. 57. 2.

Us''nea. Frond sub-crustaceous, teretish, branched, mostly pendulous: central part hyaline, elastic, composed of fascicles of tubes: receptacles orbicular, terminal, peltate, formed wholly from the frond, covered all over with its cortical substance, similar, nearly of an uniform colour; its periphery destitute of margin, but often surrounded by a ciliate edging. 57. 2.

ORDER VI. FUNGI.

Lycoper''don. Receptacle somewhat caulescent, at length bursting at the top, with scaly warts or prickles scattered over its surface, especially when young. Seminal dust green. 58. 1.

Mucor. Receptacle membranaceous, globose, stiped, at first watery and pellucid, then opake: seeds naked, sub-cohering. Very minute and fugacious. 58. 1.

Ure'do. Receptacle none: seminal dust under the cuticle of leaves and stems, when ruptured it is easily brushed off; the little masses of seeds uniform, mostly globose. 58. 1.

Agar''icus. Destitute of a volva at the base of the stipe, with or without the ring: lamellae either entire or with shorter ones intermixed, rarely simply ramose. Never veiny. A vast genus. Persoon describes 447 species, which occupies one third of his work on Fungi. 58. 1.

Bole'tus. Pileus various: tubes and pores terete, entire. A large genus. Persoon describes 93 species. 58. 1.

END OF GENERA.

SPECIES OF PLANTS.

☞ A number at the end of a specific description denotes the average height of the plant in the wild state—in feet with f, in inches with i.

A.

8—1. ACER. 23. 66.

rubrum, (red maple, soft maple. O. r. Ap. ♄.) leaves palmate, 5-lobed, cordate at the base, unequally gash-toothed, glaucous beneath, dividing incisions between the lobes acute: flowers in fives in sessile umbels, with long pedicels; germs glabrous. 50 f. *S.*

sacchari'num, (sugar maple, rock maple, hard maple, O. r-y. M. ♄.) leaves palmate 5-lobed, at the base sub-cordate, acuminate, obtusely sinuate, sinuate-toothed, glaucous beneath: peduncles in a nodding corymb. Large tree. 50 f. *S.*

stria'tum, (striped maple, false dogweed, moose-wood. O. g. M. ♄.) lower leaves roundish, upper ones 3-cuspidate-acuminate, sharply serrate, glabrous: racemes simple, pendant. Small tree, with a greenish-striped bark. 15 f. *S.*

17—2. ACHILLEA. 49. 55.

millefo'lium, (yarrow, milfoil. O. w. J. ♃.) leaves 2 pinnatifid, downy: the divisions linear, toothed, mucronate: calyx and stem furrowed. 15 i. *S.*

12—5. ACONITUM. 26. 61.

uncina'tum, (monk's hood. b. J. ♃.) stem flexuose: leaves palmate, 3 to 5-parted; divisions rhomb-lanceolate, gash-toothed: upper lip of the corolla lengthened, convex, beaked. Cultivated. 2 f. *S.*

Exotic.

napel''lus, (wolf's bane. b. J. ♃.) leaves shining, 5-parted; the divisions 3-parted by gashed incisions, sub-divisions linear: upper lip of the corolla lanceolate, ascending, 2-cleft; spur strait, obtuse. 2 f.

6—1. ACORUS. 2. 13.

cal''amus, (sweet flag, calamus. O. g-y. J. ♃.) spike protruding from the side of a sword-form leaf-like scape. Water or wet. Root strongly aromatic. 2 f. *S.*

21—1. ADIANTHUM. 55. 5.

peda'tum, (maiden hair. O. J. ♃.) frond pedate, with pinnate branches; leafets halved, upper margin gashed—barren segments toothed, fertile ones entire: stipe capillary, very glabrous. Woods. 1 f. *S.*

12—13. ADONIS. 26. 61.

Exotic.

autumna'lis, (pheasant's eye. Au. ☉.) flowers 5 to 8-petalled: fruit sub-cylindric: petals erose, or emarginate.

7—1. AESCULUS. 23. 66.

Exotic.

hippocas''tanum, (horse-chesnut. w. J. ♄.) leaves digitate, with about 7 divisions: corolla 5-petalled, spreading: flowers in a panicled pyramid. 15 f.

5—2. AETHUSA. 45. 60.

Southern.

divarica'ta, (E. w. ☉.) stem erect, slender: leaves biternate; segments narrow linear: umbels terminal, without involucra's; partial umbels 3 to 5-flowered: fruit hispid.

21—6. AGARICUS. 58. 1.

campes″tris, pileus fleshy, flattish, having dark-yellow scales: lamellæ becoming yellowish-red: stipe short; the ring-volva rather incomplete. This is the common eatable mushroom.

11—2. AGRIMONIA. 35. 92.

eupato'ria, (agrimony. O. y. Ju. ♃.) cauline leaves interruptedly pinnate, the terminal leafet petioled: leafets obovate, gash-toothed, almost glabrous: flowers sub-sessile; petals twice as long as the calyx: fruit hispid. 2 f. *S.*

10—5. AGROSTEMMA. 22. 82.

githa'go, (cockle. O. r. J. ☉.) hirsute: calyx longer than the corolla: petals entire. *S.*

3—2. AGROSTIS. 4. 10.

vulga'ris, (red-top. O. J. ♃.) panicle with smoothish branches, spreading in maturity: outer valve of the corolla 3-nerved: stipule short, truncate. 18. i.

alba, (white-top, bonnet grass. O. J. ♃.) panicle with hispid, spreading, lax branches: outer valve of the corolla 5-nerved: stipule oblong. 18 i. Var. *decumbens*, (fiorin grass,) stem decumbent. This variety is considered as a distinct species by some, and called *stolonifera*. *S.*

6—1. ALLIUM. 9. 16.

Exotic.

cepa, (garden onion. Ju. ♃.) scape naked, swelling towards the base, longer than the terete leaves.

schænopra'sum, (cives. Ju. ♃.) scape naked, equalling the leaves which are terete-filiform.

19—4. ALNUS. 50. 99.

serrula'ta, (alder. O. r-g. Ap. ♄.) leaves obovate, acuminate: veins and their axils hairy beneath: stipules oval, obtuse. 9 f. *S.*

15—13. ALTHÆA. 37. 74.

officina'lis, (marsh-mallows. ♃.) leaves downy, oblong-ovate; obsoletely 3-lobed, toothed.

Exotic.

ros″ea, (hollyhock. ♂.) stem erect: leaves rough, heart-form, 5 to 7-angled; crenate.

19—5. AMARANTHUS. 54. 80.

albus, (white coxcomb. g-w. Ju. ☉.) glomerules axillary, triandrous: leaves obovate, retuse: stem 4-cornered, simple. Common garden weed.

Exotic.

melanchol″icus, (love-lies-bleeding. r. ☉.) glomerules axillary, peduncled, roundish: leaves lance-ovate, coloured.

6—1. AMARYLLIS. 9. 17.

atamas″co, (atamasco lily. w. & r. J. ♃.) spatha 2-cleft, acute: flower pediceled: corolla bell-form, sub-equal, erect: stamens declined.

Exotic.

formosis″sima, (jacobea. ♃.) spatha 1-flowered: corolla ringent like: petals declined.

19—5. AMBROSIA. 54. 98.

ela'tior, (hogweed. O. S. ☉.) leaves doubly pinnatifid, smoothish: petioles long, ciliated: racemes terminal, panicled: stem wand-like. *S.*

16—10. AMORPHA. 32. 93.

frutico'sa, (E. Ju. ♄.) smooth, sub-arborescent: leaves petioled, emarginate; spikes aggregated, long: calyx hoary, pedicelled, one of the teeth acuminate, the rest obtuse: legume few-seeded. *S.*

16—10. AMPHICARPA. 32. 93.

mono'ica, (wild bean-vine. O. b. & w. Ju. ☉.) stem slender, twining, hairy backwards: leaves ternate, ovate, nearly smooth; stipules ovate, striate. Var. *comosa*, has hirsute leaves. Twining. 4 f.

11—1. AMYGDALUS. 36. 92.

Exotic.

per''sica, (peach. r. M. ♄.) cerratures of the leaves all acute, flowers sessile, solitary. 15 f.

nana, (flowering almond. ♄.) leaves ovate, tapering to the base, sharply serrate. 3 f.

5—1. ANAGALLIS. 20. 34.

arven''sis, (red chickweed, scarlet pimpernel. r. J. ☉.) stem spreading, naked, procumbent: petals entire, flat, with hairs at the margin. *S.*

5—1. ANCHUSA. 41. 42.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (bugloss. y. ♃.) leaves lanceolate: spikes imbricate, one-sided: bracts ovate.

10—1. ANDROMEDA. 18. 51.

calycula''ta, (leather leaf. O. w. M. ♄.) leaves lanceolate-oblong, obsoletely serrulate, sub-revolute, with scaly dots, rust coloured beneath: racemes terminal, leafy, turned one-way: pedicels short, solitary, axillary: calyx acute, 2-bracted at the base: bracts broad-ovate, acuminate: corolla oblong-cylindric. Wet. 2 f. *S.*

12—13. ANEMONE. 26. 61.

virginia'na, (wind-flower. O. g-w. Ju. ♃.) stem dichotomous: leaves in threes, ternate, upper ones opposite; leafets gash-lobate and serrate-acute: peduncles solitary, 1-flowered, elongated: seed oblong, woolly, mucronate, in heads. 18 i. *S.*

nemoro'sa, (low anemone. O. r-w. M. ♃.) stem 1-flowered: cauline leaves in threes, ternate; leafets wedge-form, gash-lobed, toothed, acute: corolla 5-6-petalled: seeds ovate, with a short style, hooked. A variety, *quinquefolia*, has lateral leafets deeply 2-cleft. 6 i. *S.*

thalictro'ides, (rue anemone. O. w. M. ♃.) umbels involucred: radical leaves twice ternate, leafets sub-cordate, 3-toothed: involucrum 6-leaved; leafets petioled, uniform: umbel few-flowered: seed naked, striate: root tuberous. A variety, *uniflora*, has a 1-flowered involucrum. 6 i. *S.*

Exotic.

horten''sia, (garden anemone.) radical leaves digitate: divisions 3-cleft; cauline ones ternate, lanceolate, connate, sub-divided: seed woolly.

5—2. ANETHUM. 45. 60.

Exotic.

grave'olens, (dill.) fruit compressed: plant annual.

fœni'culum, (fennel.) fruit ovate: plant perennial.

5—2. ANGELICA. 45. 60.

atropurpu'rea, (angelica. O. g-w. J. ♃.) stem smooth, coloured: leaves ternate, partitions sub-quinate; leafets ovate, acute, gash-serrate, sub-lobed; 3 terminal ones confluent: petioles very large, inflated. Wet meadows. Root purplish. This is the true aromatic angelica. 4 f. *S.*

Exotic.

archangel''ica, (archangel. ♂.) leaves with the odd terminal leafet lobed.

17—2. ANTHEMIS. 49. 55.

cot''ula, (mayweed. O. w. J. ☉.) receptacle conic, chaff-bristly, seed naked: leaves 2-pinnate, leafets subulate, 3-parted. 10 i. *S.*

Exotic.

no'bilis, (chamomile. w. Au. ♃.) leaves 2-pinnate; leafets 3-parted, linear-subulate, sub-villous: stem branching at the base. Fragrant. 4 i.

2—2. ANTHOXANTHUM. 4. 10.

odora'tum, (sweet vernal grass. O. M. ♃.) spike oblong-ovate; florets sub-peduncled, shorter than the awn. An American variety, *altissimum*, is larger and of a dark green. An elegant substitute for the Leghorn grass. 10—18 i. S.

13—2. ANTIRRHINUM. 40. 40.

lina'ria, (snap-dragon. y. Ju. ♃.) erect, glabrous: leaves scattered, lanceolate-linear, crowded together: spikes terminal, dense-flowered: calyx glabrous, shorter than the spur. Flowers large—(toad-flax.) Naturalized. 12—18 i.

16—10. APIOS. 32. 93.

tubero'sa, (ground-nut. O. dark p. Ju. ♃.) stem twining: leaves pinnate, with 7 lance-ovate leafets: racemes shorter than the leaves: root tuberous farinaceous, in taste resembling the cocoa-nut, and highly nutricious. This plant should be cultivated in moist rich soil, for food.

5—2. APIUM. 45. 60.

Exotic.

petroseli'num, (parsley. Ju. ♂.) cauline leaves linear: involucrum minute.
grave'olens, (celery. Ju. ♂.) stem channelled: cauline leaves wedge-form.

18—5. APOCYNUM. 30. 47.

androsæmifo'lium, (dog-bane. O. r-w. J. ♃.) stem erect and branching: leaves ovate: cymes lateral and terminal: tube of the corolla longer than the calyx, with a spreading limb. 3 f. S.

12—5. AQUILEGIA. 26. 61.

canaden''sis, (wild columbine. O. r. & y. Ap. ♃.) horns straight: stamens exsert leaves decompound. Growing frequently in crevices of rocks. 15. i.

Exotic.

vulga'ris, (garden columbine. J. ♃.) horns incurved: leafy: stem and leaves glabrous: leaves decompound. The nectariferous horns become numerous by culture; one hollow horn within another. 15 i.

14—2. ARABIS. 39. 63.

lyrata, (w. A. ♂.) stem and upper leaves smooth and glaucous: radical leaves lyrate-pinnatifid, often pilose: stem branched at the base: pedicels much longer than the calyx. 10 i.
rhombo'idea, (spring cress. O. w. M. ♃.) leaves glabrous, rhomboidal, repand toothed, the lower ones nearly round, on long petioles: root tuberous. 15 i. Wet. S.

5—5. ARALIA. 46. 59.

racemo'sa, (spikenard. O. w. J. ♃.) spreading branches: petioles 3-parted, the partitions 3—5-leaved; leafets often heart-form: branchlets axillary, leafy: umbels many, sub-panicled, leafless above. Damp. 4 f.

10—1. ARBUTUS. 18. 51.

uva-ur''si, (bear-berry, kinnikinnick. O. w-r. M. ♄.) stem procumbent: leaves wedge-obovate, entire: berry 5-seeded. Dry, barren sand plains, &c. Very abundant about the great lakes.

17—1. ARCTIUM. 49. 54.

lappa, (burdock. O. r. Au. ♃.) cauline leaves heart-form, petioled, toothed flowers panicled, globose: calyx smooth.

10—3. ARENARIA. 22. 82.

1. *Leaves oblong.*

lateriflor''a, (sand-wort. O. w. J. ♃.) stem filiform, simple: leaves ovate, obtuse, sub-triple-nerved: peduncles lateral, solitary, elongated, 2-cleft; one pedicel middle-bracted: corolla longer than the calyx. 6—10 i.

18—1. ARETHUSA. 7. 21.

bulbo'sa, (arethusa. O. r. J. ♃.) leafless: root globose: scape sheathed, 1-flowered: calyx with the superior divisions incurved; lip sub-crenulate. Flowers large, sweet-scented. Damp.

18—6. ARISTOLOCHIA. 11. 23.

serpenta'ria, (O. p. J. ♃.) leaves heart-form, oblong, acuminate: stem zigzag, ascending; peduncles radical: lips of the corolla lanceolate. (the virginia snake-root.) There is a variety with very long, narrow leaves.

11—1. ARMENIACA. 36. 92.

Exotic.

vulga'ris, (apricot. ♄.) leaves sub-cordate: stipules palmate. Var. *precox*, (early apricot.) fruit small, yellow. Var. *persicoides*, (peach apricot.) fruit sub-compressed.

11—5. ARONIA. 36. 92.

botrya'pium, (shad-bush, june-berry. O. w. Ap. ♄.) leaves oblong-oval, cuspidate, glabrous when mature, (when first expanded lanceolate and downy:) flowers racemed: petals linear: germs pubescent: segments of the calyx glabrous.

17—2. ARTEMISIA. 49. 55.

Exotic.

pon''tica, (roman artemisia.) leaves downy beneath; cauline ones bipinnate; leafets linear: branches simple: flowers roundish, peduncled, nodding.

absynth''ium, (wormwood. ♃.) stem branching, panicled: leaves hoary; radical ones triply pinnatifid; divisions lanceolate, toothed, obtuse; cauline ones 2-pinnatifid or pinnatifid; divisions lanceolate, acutish; floral ones undivided, lanceolate. Naturalized in the most mountain districts of New-England.

abrota'num, (southern-wood. ♃. & ♄.) stem straight: lower leaves bipinnate; upper ones hair form, pinnate: calyx pubescent, hemispheric.

19—12. ARUM. 2. 7.

triphyl''lum, (indian turnip, wild turnip, wake robin. O. p. g. & w. M. ♃.) sub-caulescent: leaves ternate; leafets ovate, acuminate: spadix club-form: spatha ovate, acuminate, peduncled with the lamina as long as the spadix. One variety, *virens*, has a green spatha; another *atropurpureum*, has a dark-purple spatha; another, *album*, has a white spatha. 1—3 f.

3—2. ARUNDO. 4. 10.

canaden''sis, (E. Au. ♃.) panicle oblong, loose: glumes scabrous, pubescent, as long as the corolla: corolla awned on the back: hairs at the base equalling the valves: culm and leaves smooth. 3—4 f.

18—5. ASCLEPIAS. 30. 47.

1. *Leaves opposite.*

syri'aca, (common milkweed. O. w-p. Ju. ♃.) stem very simple: leaves lanceolate-oblong, gradually acute, downy beneath: umbels sub-nodding, downy, 3 to 5 feet high: flowers in large, close clusters, sweet-scented—pollinia are fly-traps. 3—5 f. *S.*

incarna'ta, (O. r. Ju. ♃.) stem erect, branching above, downy: leaves lanceolate, sub-downy both sides: umbels mostly double at their origin: the little horn of the nectary exsert. A variety *pulchra* is more hairy. Var. *glabra*, almost glabrous. Var. *alba*, has white flowers. Damp. 3 f. *S.*

quadrifo'lia, (O. w. p-w. M. ♃.) stem erect, simple, glabrous: leaves ovate, acuminate, petioled; those in the middle of the stem are largest, and in fours: umbels 2, terminal, lax-flowered: pedicels filiform. About 18 inches high: flowers small and sweet-scented. *S.*

2. *Leaves not opposite.*

verticilla'ta, (dwarf milkweed. O. g-y. w. Ju. ♃.) stem erect, very simple, marked with lines, and small pubescence: leaves very narrow-linear, straight, glabrous, whorled, scattered: horn in the nectary exsert. 2 f. *S.*

6—1. ASPARAGUS. 11. 12.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (asparagus. Ju. ♃.) stem herbaceous, unarmed, sub-erect, terete: leaves bristle-form, soft: stipules sub-solitary. Naturalized in the northern and southern districts. 4 f.

6—1. ASPHODELUS. 10. 16.

Exotic.

lu'teus, (asphodel, king's spear. ♃.) stem leafy: leaves 3-sided, striate.

21—1. ASPIDIUM. 55. 5.

margina'le, (O. Ju. ♃.) front doubly-pinnate; lesser leafets oblong, obtuse, decurrent, crenate; more deeply crenate at the base: fruit dots marginal: stipe chaffy. 2—3 f. *S.*

17—2. ASTER. 49. 55.

1. *Leaves entire.*

rig''idus, (p. y. Au. ♃.) leaves linear, mucronate, sub-carinate, rigid; margin rough-ciliate: the cauline leaves reflexed; the branch ones spreading, subulate: stem erect, somewhat branched above; branchlets 1-flowered, corymbed: calyx imbricate, twice as short as the disk: scales obtusish, carrinate: rays about 10-flowered, reflexed. Hardly a foot high. *S.*

linariifo'lius, (O. p. y. Au. ♃.) leaves thick-set, nerveless, linear, mucronate, dotted, carinate, rough, stiff, those on the branches recurved: stem sub-decumbent: branches level-topped, 1-flowered: calyx imbricate, of the length of the disk: stem rough, purplish. *S.*

multiflo'rus, (O. w-y. Au. to Nov. ♃.) leaves linear, smoothish: stem very branching, diffuse, pubescent; branchlets one-way: calyx imbricate: scales oblong, scurfy, acute. *S.*

flexuo'sus, (L. O. y. w-p. Au. ♃.) very glabrous: leaves subulate linear, somewhat fleshy, sub-reflexed: stem slender, very branching; branches and branchlets spreading, bristle-form, 1-flowered: scales of the peduncles divaricate, subulate: calyx imbricate, scales close-pressed, acute. Salt marshes. *S.*

cornifo'lius, (O. w. Au. ♃.) glabrous: leaves oblong-ovate, acuminate, short-petioled; margin rough: stem glabrous: panicle few-flowered; branches 2-flowered; calyx sub-imbricate.

amygdali'nus, (O. w. S. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, tapering to the base, acuminate; margin rough: stem simple, level-top-corymbed at the top: calyx lax-imbricate: scales lanceolate, obtuse. Rays large. *S.*

nova-ang''liae, (O. b-p. Au. ♃.) leaves linear-lanceolate, pilose, clasping, auricled at the base: stem sub-simple, pilose, straight and stiff: flowers sub-sessile, terminal, crowded: scales of the calyx lax, coloured, lanceolate, longer than the disk. In rich soil it grows 10 feet high: flowers large. *S.*

cya'neus, (O. b-p. Au. ♃.) leaves linear-lanceolate, clasping, smooth: stem wand-like-panicled, very glabrous: branches racemed: scales of the calyx lax, lanceolate, equalling the disk, inner ones coloured at the apex. 3—4 f. Flowers many and large. This is the handsomest of all asters. *S.*

2. *Leaves more or less cordate and ovate, serrate, or toothed.*

diversifo'lius, (E. y. p. S. ♃.) leaves nearly entire, undulate, pubescent, sub-scabrous; lower ones cordate, ovate, with winged petioles; upper ones lance-oblong: panicle loose, the branches slender, racemose. 3 f. *S.*

panicula'tus, (O. b-p. Au. to Nov. ♃.) leaves ovate-lanceolate, sub-serrate, petioled, glabrous; radical ones ovate-heart-form, serrate, rough, petioled; petioles naked: stem very branching, glabrous; branchlets pilose: calyx lax, sub-imbricate. 2—4 f. Flowers smallish, numerous. *S.*

cordifo'lius, (O. w. S. ♃.) leaves heart-form, pilose beneath, sharp serrate, petioled; petioles winged: stem panicled, smoothish: panicles divaricate: calyx lax, sub-imbricate. Flowers small.

corymbo'sus, (O. w. Au. ♃.) leaves ovate, sharp-serrate, acuminate, smoothish; lower ones heart-form, petioled; petioles naked: stem glabrous, level-top-corymbed above: branches pilose: calyx oblong, imbricate: scales obtuse, very close-pressed. 12—14 i. Flowers rather large.

3. *Leaves lanceolate and ovate, lower ones serrate.*

amplexica'ulis, (O. b. S. ♃.) leaves ovate-oblong, acute, clasping, heart-form, serrate, glabrous: stem panicled, glabrous; branchlets 1-2-flowered: scales of the calyx lanceolate, closely imbricate. Flowers middle-sized.

versic''olor, (y-w. Au. ♃.) leaves sub-clasping, broad-lanceolate, sub-serrate, glabrous; radical ones serrate in the middle: stem very branching, glabrous: scales of the calyx lanceolate, lax, shorter than the disk. Flowers many and large, elegant. *S.*

tardiflo'rus, (b. Oc. ♃.) leaves sessile, serrate, glabrous, spatulate-lanceolate, tapering to the base, deflected at the margin and both sides: branches divaricate: calyx lax, the leafets lanceolate-linear, sub-equal, glabrous. Flowers not middle size.

conyzo'ides, (O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves oblong, 3-nerved, narrow and acute at the base; upper ones sessile, sub-entire; lower ones petioled, serrate: stem simple, corymbed at the top: calyx cylindric, scurfy: rays 5, very short. About 12 inches high: flowers small.

Exotic.

chinen''sis, (china aster. ⊙.) leaves ovate, thickly toothed, petioled: cauline ones sessile, at the base wedge-form; floral ones lanceolate, entire: stem hispid: branches 1-flowered: calyx foliaceous. A variety has very full flowers, various coloured, and very short rays. Cultivated.

3—2. AVENA. 4. 10.

Exotic.

sati'va, (oats. J. ⊙.) panicled: calyx 2-seeded: seeds smooth, one of them awned. First discovered in the island of Juan Fernandez. A variety is awnless, and has black seeds.

5—1. AZALEA. 18. 50.

nudiflo'ra, (early honeysuckle, pinxter blomachee. O. r. M. ♄.) sub-naked-flowered: leaves lanceolate-oblong, or oval, smooth or pubescent, uniform-coloured: nerves on the upper side downy, and beneath bristly; margin ciliate: flowers abundant, not viscous; their tubes longer than their divisions: teeth of the calyx short, oval, sub-rounded: stamens very much exsert. A variety, *coccinea*, has scarlet flowers and lanceolate leaves; another, *rutilans*, has deep-red flowers, and minute calyx; another, *carnea*, has pale-red flowers, with red bases and leafy calyx; another, *alba*, has white flowers, with a middling calyx; another, *papilionacea*, has red flowers, with the lower divisions white, calyx leafy; another, *partita*, has flesh-coloured flowers, 5-parted to the base; another, *polyandria*, has rose-coloured flowers, with from 10 to 20 stamens. Woods. 2—6 f.

21—5. BÆMYCES. 57. 2.

ros''eus, crust uniform, warty, white: peduncle (podetia) short, cylindric: receptacle sub-globose, pale-red. On the earth.

10—1. BAPTISIA. 32. 93.

tincto'ria, (wild indigo. O. y. Ju. ♃.) very glabrous and branching: leaves ternate, sub-sessile: leafets wedge-obovate, round-obtuse, (becoming black in drying:) stipules obsolete, oblong, acute, much shorter than the petioles: racemes terminal: legumes ovate, long-stiped. 2—3 f.

Southern.

alba, (O. w. J. ♃.) branches spreading: leaves ternate, petioled; leafets lanceolate, wedge-form at the base, obtuse, mucronate, glabrous: stipules subulate, shorter than the petioles: racemes terminal. 2 f.

13—2. BARTSIA. 40. 35.

pal''lida, (white painted cup. A. w-y. Au. ♃.) leaves alternate, linear, undivided; upper ones lanceolate; floral ones sub-oval, sub-toothed at the summit; all are 3-nerved: teeth of the calyx acute.

17—2. BELLIS. 49. 55.

Exotic.

peren''nis, (daisy. w. & p. Ap. ♃.) leaves obovate, crenate: scape naked, 1-flowered. Grows wild in cultivated fields in Pittsfield, Mass.

6—1. BERBERIS. 54. 78.

vulga'ris, (barberry. y. M. ♄.) branches punctate: prickles mostly in threes: leaves obovate, remotely serrate: flowers racemed.

5—2. BETA. 12. 29.

Exotic.

vulga'ris, (beet. g. Au. ♂.) flowers heaped together: lower leaves ovate.

19—12. BETULA. 50. 99.

populifo'lia, (white birch, poplar birch. Ju. ♄.) leaves deltoid, long-acuminate, unequally serrate, very glabrous: scales of the strobile with rounded lateral lobes: petioles glabrous: 30—40 f.

13—2. BIGNONIA. 40. 45.

radi'cans, (trumpet flower. O. r. & y. Ju. ♄.) leaves pinnate: leafets ovate, toothed, acuminate: corymb terminal: tube of the corolla thrice as long as the calyx: stem rooting. Most beautiful climbing shrub. One variety, *flammea*, has yellow-scarlet flowers; another variety, *coccinea*, has bright scarlet flowers. Cultivated. *S.*

1—2. BLITUM. 12. 29.

capita'tum, (strawberry blite. O. r. J. ⊙.) heads in a terminal spike, not intermixed with leaves: leaves triangular, toothed. 15 i. *S.*

21—6. BOLETUS. 58. 1.

ignia'rius, dilated, smooth, cuticle in ridges: pileus hard, becoming dark at the base, at the margin cinnamon-colour, beneath yellowish-white. Grows on trunks. General form like a horse's hoof It is called *touch-wood*.

5—1. BORAGO. 41. 42.

officina'lis, (borage. b. Ju. ⊙.) leaves alternate: calyx spreading.

14—2. BRASSICA. 39. 63.

Exotic.

ra'pa, (turnip. ♂.) root caulescent, orbicular, depressed, fleshy: radical leaves rough; cauline ones very entire, smooth. Var. *ruta-baga*, has a turbinate, sub-fusiform root.

olera'cea, (common cabbage, including all the varieties caused by culture. ♂.) root caulescent, terete, fleshy: leaves smooth, glaucous, repand-lobate.

3—2. BRIZA. 4. 10.

me'dia, (quaking grass, rattle-snake grass? E. J. ♃.) panicle erect: spikelets heart-ovate, about 7-flowered: calyx smaller than the flowers. 1 f. Probably introduced.

13—2. BUCHNERA. 40. 34.

america'na, (blue-hearts. O. b. Au. ♃.) stem simple: leaves lanceolate, subdentate, rough, 3-nerved: flowers remote, spiked. In the herbarium this plant becomes black. 1 f. *S.*

11—1. CACTUS. 13. 85.

opun''tia, (prickly pear. E. y. J. ♃.) proliferous: articulations compressed, ovate: bristles fascicular. The plant appears like a series of thick succulent leaves, one growing from the top of another. *S.*

17—4. CALENDULA. 49. 55.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (pot marygold. y. ⊙.) seed keeled, muricate, incurved.

19—12. CALLA. 2. 7.

palu'stris, (water arum. O. w. J. ♃.) leaves sub-roundish, heart-form, acute: spatha ovate, cuspidate, spreading when mature. Grows in wet places.

12—13. CALTHA. 26. 61.

palu'stris, (O. y. Ap. ♃.) stem erect: leaves cordate, sub-orbicular, acute-crenate. 12—18 i.

5—1. CAMPANULA. 29. 52.

rotundifo'lia, (flax bell-flower, hair-bell. O. b. J. ♃.) glabrous: radical leaves heart-reniform, crenate: cauline ones linear, entire: panicle lax, few-flowered: flowers nodding.

american'a, (E. b. Au. ♃.) leaves ovate-lanceolate, long-acuminate; lower ones sub-cordate, with the petioles ciliate: flowers axillary, nearly sessile, in a terminal leafy raceme; corolla sub-rotate: style exsert. Cultivated. 2 f.

20—5. CANNABIS. 53. 98.

Exotic.

sati'va, (hemp. g. Au. ⊙.) stem pilose: leaves petioled, digitate; leafets lanceolate, serrate, pilose: staminate flowers solitary, axillary; pistillate ones spiked. 4—10 f.

5—1. CAPSICUM. 28. 41.

Exotic.

an''nuum, (guinea pepper, red pepper, cayenne pepper. y-g. w. Au. ⊙.) stem herbaceous: peduncles solitary. From South America. 10—18 i.

14—2. CARDAMINE. 39. 63.

pensylva'nica, (American water-cress. O. w. M. ♃.) glabrous, branching: leaves pinnate: leafets roundish-oblong, obtuse, tooth-angled: silique narrow, erect. *S.*

17—1. CARDUUS. 49. 54.

pectina'tus, (E. p. ♂.) unarmed: leaves decurrent, lanceolate, pectinately pinnatifid: peduncles almost leafless, terminal, very long, about 1-flowered: flowers nodding, often discharging the pollen: scales of the calyx linear-spreading.

19—3. CAREX. 3. 9.

ster''ilis, (barren sedge. O. M. ♃.) spikelets in fives, sessile, approximate: fruit ovate, acuminate or somewhat beaked, 2-cleft, 3-sided-compressed, scabrous at the margin; equalling the ovate acutish scale. 8 i. Wet. *S.*

retroflex''a, (O. M. ♃.) spikelets about in fours, alternate, ovate, sub-approximate, sessile, bracted: fruit ovate, acutish, 2-toothed, margin glabrous or scabrous, reflex-spreading, about equal to the ovate acute scale. 1 f. Woods. *S.*

17—1. CARTHAMUS. 49. 54.

Exotic.

tincto'rius, (false saffron, safflower. y. J. ⊙.) leaves ovate, entire, serrate-aculeate.

5—2. CARUM. 45. 60.

Exotic.

ca'rui, (caraway. w. ♂.) stem branching: leaves with ventricose sheaths: partial involucrum none.

19—12. CARYA. 50. 94.

alba, (shag-walnut, shag-bark hickory. O. M. ♄.) leafets about 7, long-petioled, lance-oblong, acuminate, sharply serrate, villose beneath; the terminal leafet sessile: ament filiform, glabrous: fruit globose, a little depressed: nut compressed, oblique. *S.*

10—1. CASSIA. 33. 93.

mariland''ica, (wild senna. O. y. Au. ♃.) somewhat glabrous: leaves in 8 pairs, lance-oblong, mucronate; flowers in axillary racemes, and in terminal panicles: legumes linear, curved. An excellent mild cathartic. B. River alluvion. 2—4 f.

chamæcrist''a, (cassia, partridge pea. E. y. Au. ⊙.) somewhat glabrous: leaves linear, in many pairs, the glands on the petioles sub-pedicelled: two of the petals spotted: legumes pubescent. A most elegant plant. 8—16 i. Dry sand, &c. *S.*

nic''titans, (E. y. Ju. ⊙.) spreading, pubescent: leaves in many pairs, linear: glands of the petioles pedicelled: peduncles short, supra-axillary, 2 or 3-

flowered; flowers pentandrous. The leaves of this species, and of the chamæcrista, possess a considerable degree of irritability. 12 i.

Exotic.

se'nna, (Egyptian senna. ⊙.) leaves in 6 pairs; petioles glandless: legume reniform.

19—12. CASTANEA. 50. 99.

america'na, (chesnut. O. g. J. ♄.) leaves lance-oblong, sinuate-serrate, with the serratures mucronate, glabrous both sides. Large tree. *S.*

2—1. CATALPA. 40. 45.

cordifo'lia, (M. w. & y. ♄.) leaves simple, cordate, entire, by threes: flowers in panicles. 40—50 f. *S.*

5—1. CEANOTHUS. 43. 95.

america'nus, (New-Jersey tea. O. w. J. ♄.) leaves ovate, acuminate, serrate 3-nerved, pubescent beneath: panicles axillary, long-peduncled, sub-corymbed. *S.*

5—1. CELASTRUS. 43. 95.

scandens, (false bittersweet, staff-tree. O. y-w. J. ♄.) stem twining: leaves oblong, acuminate, serrate: racemes terminal. Retains its scarlet berries through the winter.

21—5. CENOMYCE. 57. 2.

pyxida'ta, frond foliaceous; divisions crenulate, ascending: peduncles all turbinate, cup-form, glabrous, at length warty-granulate, scabrous, greenish-grey: cups regular; afterwards the margin is extended and proliferous: receptacles tawny.

coccif''era, frond foliaceous, minute; divisions round, crenate, naked beneath: peduncles long-turbinate, naked, warty-scabrous, pale-yellowish, cinereous and green; all bearing cups, which are wine-glass-form; margin extended, fertile: receptacles rather large, at length roundish, scarlet.

17—3. CENTAUREA. 49. 54.

Exotic.

cy'anus, (blue bottle. b. w. r. J. ⊙.) scales of the calyx serrate: leaves linear, entire; lower ones toothed. Naturalized.

4—1. CEPHALANTUS. 48. 56.

occidenta'lis, (button bush. O. w. Ju. ♄.) leaves opposite and in threes, oval, acuminate. Inflorescence a round head. Swamps. Var. *pubescens*, has the leaves and branchlets pubescent. 4—5 f. *S.*

10—5. CERASTIUM. 22. 82.

vulga'tum, (mouse-ear, chick weed. O. w. Ap. ⊙.) hirsute, viscid, cespitose: leaves ovate: petals oblong, about equal to the calyx: flowers longer than the peduncle. 6—10 i. *S.*

10—1. CERCIS. 33. 93.

canaden''sis, (red-bud, judas tree. r. M. ♄.) leaves round-heart-form, acuminate, villose at the axils of the nerves: stipules minute: legumes short-stiped. Var. *pubescens*, has roundish acute leaves, pubescent beneath. 15—30 f.

21—5. CETRARIA. 57. 2.

islan''dica, (the iceland lichen, iceland moss. C. Y.) frond olive-chesnut-brown, at the base reddish-white, white beneath; divisions erectish, sub-linear, many-cleft, channelled, tooth-ciliate: the fertile ones dilated: receptacles close-pressed, flat, one-coloured; margin frond-like, elevated, entire. On sandy plains, as on the barren plains near Beaver-ponds, in New-Haven, where it covers the earth very densely in many places.

6—3. CHAMAEROPS. 1. 11.

Southern.

serrula'ta, (E. Ju. ♄.) caudex creeping; stipes sharply serrate: fronds plated palmate. Fronds 2 f.

14—2. CHEIRANTHUS. 39. 63.

Exotic.

chei'ri, (wall-flower. J. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, acute, glabrous: branches angled; stem somewhat of a woody texture.

an''nuus, (stock July-flower. Ju. ☉.) leaves lanceolate, sub-dentate, obtuse, hoary: silique cylindric, with an acute apex.

12—1. CHELIDONIUM. 27. 62.

Exotic.

ma'jus, (celandine. y. M. ♃.) umbels axillary, peduncled: leaves alternate, pinnate; lobed. Naturalized.

13—2. CHELONE. 40. 45.

gla'bra, (snakehead. O. w. & r. Ju. ♃.) leaves opposite, lance-oblong, acuminate, serrate: spikes terminal, dense-flowered. Var. *alba*, leaves sub-sessile: flowers white. Var. *purpurea*, leaves short-petioled: flowers purple. Var. *lanceolata*, leaves lanceolate, acuminate, serrate, sessile, pubescent beneath: segments of the calyx oblong. Damp.

5—2. CHENOPODIUM. 12. 29.

album, (O. g. Ju. ☉.) leaves rhomboid-ovate, erose, entire behind, the upper ones oblong, entire, seed smooth. Var. *viride*, leaves lance-rhomboid, sinuate-toothed: racemes ramose, sub-foliaceous: stem very green. 2—4 f.

bo'trys, (oak-of-jerusalem. O. g. J. ☉.) leaves oblong, sinuate: racemes naked, many-cleft. Sweet scented. 12 i. *S.*

10—1. CHIMAPHILA. 18. 51.

macula'ta, (spotted winter-green. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, rounded at the base, remotely serrate, marked with long spots: scape 2 or 3-flowered: filaments woolly.

umbella'ta, (prince's pine, bitter winter-green. O. r-w. Ju. ♃.) leaves serrate, uniformly green, wedge-lanceolate, with an acute base: scape corymbed: filaments glabrous.

2—1. CHIONANTHUS. 44. 37.

virgin''ica, (fringe tree. w. M. ♄.) panicle terminal, trifid: peduncles 3-flowered: leaves acute. Var. *montanus*, leaves oval-lanceolate, coriaceous, glabrous: panicle dense: drupe oval. Var. *maritimus*, leaves obovate-lanceolate, membranaceous, pubescent: panicle very lax: drupe elliptic. Berries purplish-blue. *S.*

17—2. CHRYSANTHEMUM. 49. 55.

leucan''themum, (ox-eyed daisy. O. J. ♃.) leaves clasping, lanceolate, serrate, cut-toothed at the base: stem erect, branching. 12—20 i. *S.*

Exotic.

parthe'nium, (feverfew.) leaves petioled, compound, flat: leafets ovate, gashed: peduncles branching, corymbed: stem erect.

corona'rium, (garden chrysanthemum. Au. ☉.) leaves bipinnatifid, acute, broader outwards: stem branching.

8—2. CHRYSOSPLENIUM. 13. 84.

oppositifo'lium, (golden saxifrage, water-carpet. O. y-r. M ♃.) leaves opposite, roundish, slightly crenate, tapering for a little distance to the petiole. In rivulets, springs, &c.

17—1. CICHORIUM. 49. 53.

in''tybus, (succory or endive. O. b. Ju. ♃.) flowers axillary, in pairs, sessile: leaves runcinate.

Exotic.

endiv''ia, (garden endive. b. ♂.) peduncles axillary, in pairs; one long, 1-

flowered, the other short, about 4-flowered: leaves oblong, denticulate. Var. *crispum*, has fringed leaves and solitary flowers.

5—2. CICUTA. 45. 60.

macula'ta, (O. w. Ju. ♃.) serratures of the leaves mucronate: petioles membranaceous, 2-lobed at the apex. Damp. 3—6 f.

Exotic.

viro'sa, (water hemlock. ♃.) umbels opposite to the leaves: petioles margined, obtuse; leafets ternate, acutely serrate. Root containing a yellow juice.

lutetia'na, (O. Ju. w. ♃.) stem erect: leaves ovate, remotely toothed, opaque, smooth. 12—18 i. *S.*

12—1. CITRUS. 18. 70.

Exotic.

me'dica, (lemon tree. w. J. ♄.) leaves ovate, acuminate, with linear wingless petioles. Var. *limon*, (lime tree) bears smaller fruit, which is almost round. 4—10 f.

auran''tium, (orange tree. w. ♄.) leaves oval, acuminate, with the petioles winged or margined.

5—1. CLAYTONIA. 13. 86.

virgin''ica, (O. w. r. A. ♃.) leaves linear-lanceolate: petals obovate, retuse: leaves of the calyx somewhat acute: root tuberous. Var. *latifolia*, leaves ovate-lanceolate: leaves of the calyx obtuse. 6—12 i.

12—13. CLEMATIS. 26. 61.

virgin''ica, (virgin's bower. O. w. Ju. ♄.) climbing: leaves ternate; leafets ovate, sub-cordate, gash-toothed and lobate: flowers panicled, dioecious 15—20 f. *S.*

Exotic.

flam''mula, (sweet virgin's bower. ♄.) lower leaves laciniate; upper ones simple, entire, lanceolate.

6—1. CLEOME. 25. 64.

dodecan''dra, (O. r-w. Ju. ☉.) viscid-pubescent: leaves ternate; leafets elliptical-oblong: flowers generally dodecandrous. 1 f.

10—1. CLETHRA. 18. 51.

alnifo'lia, (E. w. Au. ♄.) leaves wedge-obovate, acute, coarse-serrate, glabrous, both sides one colour: racemes spiked, simple, bracted, hoary-tomentose. 4—8 f.

17—1. CNICUS. 49. 54.

lanceola'tus, (common thistle. O. p. J. ♂.) leaves decurrent, hispid, pinnatifid: divisions 2-lobed, divaricate, spinose: calyx ovate, with spider-web-like pubescence: scales lanceolate, spinose, spreading. 2—4 f. *S.*

arven''sis, (canada thistle. O. p. J. ♃.) leaves sessile, pinnatifid, ciliate, spinose: stem panicled: calyx ovate, mucronate: scales broad-lanceolate, close-pressed; margin woolly. 2—3 f.

14—1. COCHLEARIA. 39. 63.

Exotic.

armora'cia, (horse-radish. w. J. ♃.) radical leaves lanceolate, crenate; cauline ones gashed. Naturalized.

19—3. COIX. 4. 10.

lach''ryma, (job's-tear. Ju. ☉.) culm semi-terete above: flowers naked: fruit ovate.

16—10. COLUTEA. 32. 93.

vesica'ria, (senna herb. y. Ju.) leaves pinnate; leafets ovate: stem herbaceous, decumbent, villose: legumes orbicular, inflated.

3—1. COMMELINA. 6. 13.

angustifo'lia, (day-flower. E. b. Ju. ♃.) assurgent, weak, somewhat glabrous: leaves lance-linear, very acute, flat, glabrous: sheathes sub-ciliate: bracts (or involucra) peduncled, solitary, short-cordate. 12 i. *S.*

19—3. COMPTONIA. 50. 99.

asplenifo'lia, (sweet fern. O. g. Ap. ♄.) leaves long-linear, alternately crenate-pinnatifid. 18—48 i. *S.*

21—4. CONFERVA. 57. 2.

rufa, threads ramose, capillary, straight, obsoletely geniculate; branches and branchlets opposite, remotish: length of the joints equalling the diameter. In the sea. Reddish-yellow, shining, in fascicles: threads of the thickness of human hair, 2 inches and longer, flaccid, soft.

5—2. CONIUM. 45. 60.

macula'tum, (poison hemlock. O. w. Ju. ♃.) stem very branching, spotted: leaves very compound: seed striate. Var. *crispatulum*, leaves crisped: ultimate divisions acuminate, or terminated in a bristle. 2—4 f.

6—1. CONVALLARIA. 11. 12.

Corolla 6-parted, spreading: filaments divergent attached to the base of the segments. (*Flowers in a terminal raceme.*)

stella'ta, (O. w. M. ♃.) stem with alternate, clasping, oval-lanceolate leaves: raceme simple, terminal. 8—18 i.

trifo'lia, (O. w. J. ♃.) stem about 3-leaved: leaves alternate, ovate-lanceolate, contracted at the base: raceme simple, terminal, few-flowered. 6—10 i.

racemo'sa, (spiked solomon seal. O. y-w. M. ♃.) stem with alternate leaves: leaves sessile, oblong-oval, acuminate, nerved, pubescent: flowers in a terminal raceme-panicle. 18—24 i.

Southern.

maja'lis, (lily of the valley. A. w. J. ♃.) scape naked, smooth: leaves oval-ovate.

5—1. CONVOLVULUS. 29. 43.

re'pens, (field bind-weed. O. w. & r. J. ♃.) twining: leaves sagittate, with the apex acute and the lobes truncate, entire (some obtuse:) bracts acute, longer than the calyx, and shorter than the middle of the corolla: peduncle angled, exceeding the petiole. *S.*

pandura'tus, (mechoacan. w. & r. Ju. ♃.) twining, pubescent: leaves broad-cordate, entire or lobed, guitar-form: peduncles long: flowers fascicled: calyx glabrous, awnless: corolla tubular-bell-form. Resembles rhubarb in its effects.

Exotic.

bata'tus, (sweet potato, carolina potato. w-r. Ju. ♃.) creeping, tuberous: leaves cordate, hastate, angular-lobed, 5-nerved, smoothish: peduncles long: flowers fascicled: corolla sub-campanulate. Cultivated.

purpu'reus, (common morning glory. b. p. J. ☉.) pubescent: leaves cordate, entire: peduncles 2 to 5-flowered: pedicels nodding, thickened: divisions of the calyx lanceolate: capsules glabrous. Cultivated.

12—13. COPTIS. 26. 61.

trifo'lia, (gold thread. O. w. M. ♃.) scape 1-flowered: leaves ternate. Roots long, filiform, golden-yellow. Tonic bitter. B. 2—4 i. *S.*

5—2. CORIANDRUM.* 45. 60.

Exotic.

sati'vum, (coriander. w. J. ☉.) fruit globose: calyx and style permanent.

4—1. CORNUS. 45. 58.

canaden''sis, (dogweed, low cornel. O. w. M. ♃.) herbaceous: leaves at the top, whorled, veiny: involucra ovate, acuminate: fruit globose. 4—8 i. *S.*

flo'rida, (false box, dogwood tree. w-y. M. ♄.) leaves ovate, acuminate: involucra, 4, very large, somewhat obcordate: fruit ovate. 15—30 f. *S.*

16—10. CORONILLA. 32. 93.

em''erus, (coronilla. y. ♃.) stem angled, woody; peduncles about 3-flowered: claws of the petals about thrice as long as the calyx.

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* Coriandrum *americanum*, described under class Pentandria. See page 249.

16—5. CORYDALIS. 24. 62.

cuculla'ria, (colic weed. O. y. & w. M. ♃.) corolla 2-spurred: scape naked: raceme simple, 1-sided: nectaries divaricate, of the length of the corolla: style enclosed. 8—12 i. *S.*

19—12. CORYLUS. 50. 99.

america'na, (hazel-nut. O. Ap. ♄.) leaves roundish, cordate, acuminate: calyx roundish-campanulate, larger than the sub-globose nut; border dilated, coarsely serrate. 3—5 f. S.

11—5. CRATAEGUS. 36. 92.

cocci'nea, (thorn-bush. O. w. M. ♄.) thorny: leaves long-petioled, ovate, acutely-lobed, serrate, glabrous: petioles and pubescent calyx glandular: flowers pentagynous. Var. *viridis*, has lance-ovate leaves, sub-trilobate: stem unarmed.

puncta'ta, (common thorn tree. O. w. M. ♄.) thorny or unarmed: leaves wedge-obovate, sub-plicate, glabrous, serrate: calyx villose; divisions subulate, entire. *S.*

Exotic.

oxyacan''tha, (quickset. w. M. ♄.) leaves obtuse, somewhat 3-cleft, serrate. glabrous: peduncles and calyx somewhat glabrous: segments of the calyx lanceolate, acute: styles 2. Naturalized.

3—1. CROCUS. 6. 18.

officina'lis, (saffron. y. ♃.) leaves linear, with revolute margins: stigma exsert, with long-linear segments. Var. *sativus*, having violet corollas.

sagitta'lis, (rattle-box. E. y. Ju. ☉.) hirsute, erect, branching: leaves simple, lance-oblong: stipules lanceolate, acuminate, decurrent: racemes opposite to the leaves, about 3-flowered: corolla less than the calyx. *S.*

19—16. CUCUMIS. 34. 97.

Exotic.

angu'ria, (prickly cucumber.) leaves palmate-sinuate: fruit globose, echinate.

me'lo, (muskmelon. y. Ju. ☉.) angles of the leaves rounded: pome oblong, torulose. Sweet scented.

sati'vus, (cucumber. y. Ju. ☉.) angles of the leaves straight: pomaceous berry oblong, scabrous. Brought from Asia.

19—16. CUCURBITA. 34. 97.

Exotic.

ovif''era, (egg-squash. ☉.) leaves cordate, angled-5-lobed, denticulate, pubescent: pomaceous berry with fillet-like stripes lengthwise.

pep''o, (pumpkin. y. Ju. ☉.) leaves cordate, obtuse, sub-5-lobed, denticulate: pomaceous berry roundish or oblong, smooth. Var. *potiro*, has the fruit more or less flattened. From Asia.

citrul''lus, (watermelon. y. Au. ☉.) leaves 5-lobed; the lobes sinuate-pinnatifid, obtuse: pomaceous berry oval, smooth. Fruit watery, often striped. From Africa and the south of Asia.

lagena'ria, (gourd, calabash. w. Au. ☉.) leaves cordate, round-obtuse, pubescent, denticulate, with 2 glands at the base on the under side: pomaceous berry clavate, somewhat woody.

11—1. CUPHEA. 54. 91.

viscosis''sima, (wax-bush. E. p. J. ♄.) viscous: leaves opposite, petioled, ovate-oblong: flowers with 12 stamens, lateral, solitary: peduncles very short. *S.*

19—15. CUPRESSUS. 51. 100.

thyoi'des, (white cedar. O. M. ♄.) branchlets compressed: leaves imbricate four ways, ovate, tubercled at the base: strobile globular. *S.*

5—2. CUSCUTA. 29. 43.

america'na, (dodder. O. w. Au. ☉.) flowers peduncled, umbelled, 5-cleft: stigma capitate. A bright yellow leafless vine, twining round other weeds in damp places.

europe'a, (E. w. Au. ☉.) flowers sub-sessile: stigma acute: stamens 4 or 5.

18—1. CYMBIDIUM. 7. 21.

pulchel″lum, (grass pink. O. r. Ju. ♃.) radical leaves ensiform, nerved: scape few-flowered: lip erect, slender at the base; lamina spread; disk concave, bearded. Var. *graminifolia*, leaves 1—2 lines broad; bracted ones acuminate. 12—18 i. *S.*

17—1. CYNARA. 49. 54.

Exotic.

scol″ymus, (garden artichoke. ♃.) leaves sub-spinose, pinnate: scales of the calyx ovate. Naturalized.

5—1. CYNOGLOSSUM. 41. 42.

officina′le, (hound-tongue. O. p. Ju. ♂.) very soft-pubescent: leaves broad-lanceolate, sessile: panicled racemes.

18—2. CYPRIPEDIUM. 7. 21.

pubes″cens, (yellow ladies' slipper. y. M. ♃.) stem leafy: lobe of the style triangular-oblong, obtuse: outer petals oblong-ovate, acuminate; inner ones very long, linear, contorted: lip compressed, shorter than the petals. *S.*

specta′bile, (gay ladies' slipper. O. w. & p. J. ♃.) stem leafy: lobe of the style oval-cordate, obtuse: outer petals broad-oval, obtuse: lip longer than the petals, split before. *S.*

3—2. DACTYLIS. 4. 10.

glomera′ta, (E. J. ♃.) panicle glomerate: leaves carinate. 2—3 f. *S.*

11—13. DALIBARDA. 35. 92.

fragaro′ides, (dry strawberry. E. y. M. ♃.) leaves ternate: leafets wedge-form, gash-serrate, ciliate: peduncles many-flowered: tube of the calyx obconic. 5—8 i.

8—1. DAPHNE. 31. 25.

Exotic.

meze′reum, (mezereon. M. ♄.) flowers sessile, cauline, in threes: leaves lanceolate.

5—1. DATURA. 28. 41.

stramo′nium, (thorn apple. O. w-b. Au. ☉.) pericarps spinose, erect, ovate: leaves ovate, glabrous, angular-dentate. *S.*

5—2. DAUCUS. 45. 60.

caro′ta, (carrot. w. J. ♂.) seeds hispid: petioles nerved underside: divisions of the leafets narrow-linear, acute. 2—3 f.

12—2. DELPHINIUM. 26. 61.

Exotic.

consol″idum, (larkspur. b. Ju. ☉.) nectaries 1-leaved: stem sub-divided. Naturalized.

10—2. DIANTHUS. 22. 82.

arme′ria, (pink. r. Ju. ☉.) flowers aggregate, fascicled: scales of the calyx lanceolate, villose, equalling the tube. 1 f.

Exotic.

barba′tus, (sweet william. r. & w. Ju. ♃.) flowers fascicled: scales of the calyx ovate-subulate, equalling the tube: leaves lanceolate.

caryophyl″lus, (carnation or pink. r. & w. ♃.) flowers solitary: scales of the calyx sub-rhomboid, very short: petals crenate, beardless: leaves linear-subulate, channelled. By rich culture, the stamens mostly change to petals.

chinen″sis, (china pink. Ju. ☉.) flowers solitary: scales of the calyx subulate, spreading, leafy, equalling the tube: petals crenate: leaves lanceolate.

pluma′rious, (single pink. r. & w. ♃.) flowers solitary: scales of the calyx sub-ovate, very short and obtuse, awnless: corolla many-cleft, with the throat hairy.

5—1. DIERVILLA. 48. 58.

canaden″sis, (bush honeysuckle. O. y. Ju. ♄.) peduncles axillary and terminal, dichotomous, 3-flowered: leaves ovate, serrate, acuminate. 2—3 f. *S.*

13—2. DIGITALIS. 40. 40.

Exotic.

purpu'rea, (foxglove. p. Ju. ♂.) leafets of the calyx ovate, acute: corolla obtuse; upper lip entire: leaves lance-ovate, rugose.

10—1. DIONÆA. 20. 68.

Southern.

muscip''ula, (Venus' fly-trap. E. w. Ju. ♃.) radical leaves, with terminal ciliate appendages, somewhat resembling a rat-trap; this is suddenly closed on being irritated.

5—1. DROSERA. 20. 68.

rotundifo'lia, (sun-dew. O. y-w. Au. ♃.) scape simple: leaves nearly orbicular, narrowed at the base: petioles long, downy. Wet or damp. 4—8 i. S.

17—5. ELEPHANTOPUS. 49. 55.

carolinia'nus, (elephant-foot. r. Au. ♃.) radical and cauline leaves oblong, narrowed at the base, pilose on both sides: stem erect, pilose, leafy. 2 f. S.

10—1. EPIGÆA. 18. 51.

re'pens, (trailing arbutus. O. r. & w. Ap. ♄.) stem creeping: branches and petioles very hirsute: leaves cordate-ovate, entire: corolla cylindric.

8—1. EPILOBIUM. 17. 88.

spica'tum, (willow herb. O. p. Ju. ♃.) leaves scattered, lance-linear, veiny, glabrous: flowers unequal: stamens declined. 4—6 f.

13—2. EPIPHEGUS. 40. 35.

virginia'nus, (beech drops, cancer-root. O. y. p. Ju. ♃.) stem very branching: flowers alternate, distant: calyx short, cup-form, shorter than the capsule. The whole plant is yellowish-white and of a naked appearance. 8—12 i. S. Astringent.

21—1. EQUISETUM. 55. 5.

hyema'le, (scouring rush. E. Ju. ♃.) stems erect, very scabrous, bearing spikes at the apex: sheaths 2-coloured, withering at the base and apex: teeth with caducous awns. 2—3 f. S.

8—1. ERICA. 18. 51.

Exotic.

pubes''cens, (downy heath. r. M.) corolla linear, pubescent, with the limb erect: capsule glabrous: leaves fringed.

15—5. ERODIUM. 14. 73.

Exotic.

cico'nium, (stork-bill geranium. ☉.) peduncle many-flowered: leaves pinnate: leafets pinnatifid, toothed: petals oblong, obtuse: stem ascending.

cicuta'rium, (hemlock geranium. p. Ap. ☉.) peduncles many-flowered: leaves pinnate; leafets sessile, pinnatifid, gashed: corolla larger than the calyx: stem prostrate, hirsute.

moscha'tum, (musk geranium. ☉.) peduncles many-flowered: leaves pinnate; leafets sub-petioled, oblong, gash-toothed: petals equalling the calyx: stem procumbent.

14—2. ERYSIMUM. 39. 63.

amphib''ium, (water radish. O. y. J. ♃.) silique (or rather silicle) oblong-ovate, declined: leaves lance-oblong, pinnatifid or serrate: petals longer than the calyx. Wet. 1—2 f. S.

6—1. ERYTHRONIUM. 11. 14.

america'num,* (dog-tooth violet, adder's tongue. O. y. Ap. ♃.) leaves lance-oval, punctate: petals oblong-lanceolate, obtuse at the point; inner ones 2-dentate near the base: style clavate; stigma entire. (stigmas 3.) 6—8 i. S.

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* Called by some writers *dens canis*.

13—2. EUCHROMA. 40. 40.

cocci'nea, (painted cup. O. y. & r. J. ♂.) leaves alternate, linear, gash-pinnatifid; divisions linear: bracts dilated, generally 3-cleft, longer than the flowers: calyx 2-cleft, about equal to the corolla: divisions retuse, emarginate. Flowers yellow, with scarlet bracts. One variety, *pallens*, has yellow bracts. 10—16 i. *S.*

17—1. EUPATORIUM. 49. 55.*

Calyxes more than 5-flowered.

purpu'reum, (purple thorough-wort, joe-pye. O. p. Au. ♃.) leaves in fours or fives, petioled, lance-ovate, serrate, rugose-veined, roughish: stem hollow. 4—6 f. *S.*

perfolia'tum, (boneset, thorough-wort. O. w. Au. ♃.) leaves connate-perfoliate, oblong-serrate, rugose, downy beneath: stem villose. 2 f. *S.*

13—2. EUPHRASIA. 40. 35.

officina'lis, (eyebright. w. Ju. ☉.) leaves ovate, obtusely toothed: lower divisions of the lip emarginate.

19—12. FAGUS. 50. 99.

ferrugin''ea, (red beech. O. y-w. M. ♄.) leaves ovate-oblong, acuminate, pubescent beneath, coarsely toothed, at the base obtuse, sub-cordate-oblique: nuts ovate, acutely 3-sided.

20—3. FICUS. 53. 98.

Exotic.

ca'rica, (fig-tree. g. Ju. ♄.) leaves cordate, 3 or 5-lobed, repand-toothed: lobes obtuse, scabrous above, pubescent beneath. 5—8 f.

11—13. FRAGARIA. 35. 92.

virginia'na, (wild-strawberry. O. w. M. ♃.) calyx of the fruit spreading: hairs on the petioles erect, on the peduncles close pressed: leaves somewhat glabrous above.

Exotic.

vesca, (English strawberry. w. M. ♃.) calyx of the fruit reflexed: hairs on the petioles spreading, on the peduncle close-pressed.

20—2. FRAXINUS. 44. 37.

acumina'ta, (white ash. O. w-g. M. ♄.) leafets petioled, oblong, shining, acuminate, very entire, or slightly toothed, glaucous beneath: flowers calycled. *S.*

6—1. FRITILLARIA. 10. 14.

Exotic.

imperia'lis, (crown imperial. r. & y. M. ♃.) flowers under a leafy crown, nodding: leaves lance-linear, entire. From Persia.

malea'gris, (fritillary, guinea-hen-flower. p. & y. M. ♃.) leaves alternate, linear, channelled; stem 1-flowered; nectary linear. Flower checkered.

3—1. FUCHSIA. 17. 88.

Exotic.

magella'nica, (ear-drop. r.) peduncles axillary, 1-flowered: leaves opposite or in threes, very entire. Flowers pendulous.

21—4. FUCUS. 57. 2.

lorens, stem very short, dilated into a cup, sending out a fusiform, dichotomous receptacle. In the ocean.

16—6. FUMARIA. 24. 62.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (fumitory. r. J. ☉.) stem branching, spread: leaves more than decompound; leafets wedge-lanceolate, gashed. Naturalized. 6—10 i.

21—2. FUNARIA. 56. 4.

hygromet''rica, (hygrometer moss.) leaves ovate, acute, concave, entire, inflected: capsules swelling, drooping, pear-form: pedicels very long, twisting spirally when dry.

6—1. GALANTHUS. 6. 17.

niva'lis, (snow-drop. w. Ap. ♃.) leaves linear, keeled, acute, radical: scape 1-flowered.

4—1. GALIUM. 47. 57.

Fruit glabrous.

trif″idum, (bed-straw. E. w. Ju. ♃.) stem procumbent, scabrous backwards: cauline leaves in fives: branch leaves in fours, linear, obtuse, scabrous at the margin and on the nerves: fascicles terminal, few-flowered: pedicels short: corollas mostly 3-cleft. *S.*

asprel″lum, (rough bed-straw. O. w. Ju. ♃.) stem diffuse, very branching, prickly backwards: leaves in fives and sixes, lanceolate, acuminate; margins and nerves prickly: pedicels short. 18—24 i. *S.*

10—1. GAULTHERIA. 18. 51.

procum″bens, (spicy wintergreen. O. w. J. ♃. or ♄.) stem procumbent: branches erect: leaves obovate, acute at the base: flowers few, nodding. Berries red, consisting in part of the permanent calyx; a little mealy, pleasant tasted. *S.*

5—2. GENTIANA. 47. 46.

crini′ta, (fringed gentian. O. b. S. ♃.) stem terete: branches long, 1-flowered: leaves lanceolate, acute: corolla 4-cleft; divisions obovate, gash-ciliate. 18 i. *S.*

15—10. GERANIUM.* 14. 73.

macula′tum, (crow-foot geranium. O. r. & b. J. ♃.) erect: pubescence reversed: stem dichotomous: leaves opposite, 3 or 5-parted, gashed; upper ones sessile: peduncles 2-flowered: petals obovate. 1—2 f. *S.*

Exotic.

sanguin″eum, (bloody geranium. ♃.) peduncle 1-flowered: leaves 5-parted, 3-cleft, orbicular: capsule bristly at the top.

13—2. GERARDIA. 40. 40.

Flowers yellow.

flava, (false foxglove. O. y. Ju. ♃.) pubescent: stem nearly simple: leaves sub-sessile, lanceolate, entire or toothed: lower ones sub-pinnatifid, gashed: flowers axillary, opposite, sub-sessile. 2—3 f. *S.*

11—13. GEUM. 35. 92.

virginia′num, (avens. O. w. Ju. ♃.) pubescent: radical and lower cauline leaves ternate, upper ones lanceolate: stipules ovate, sub-entire: flowers erect: petals shorter than the calyx: awns hooked, naked; at the apex twisted, hairy. Var. *trilobum*, has the radical leaves 3-lobed or ternate. 2 f. *S.*

13—1. GLECHOMA. 42. 39.

hedera′cea, (ground-ivy, gill-overground. O. b. & r. M. ♃.) leaves reniform crenate: stem rooting. Var. *cordata*, leaves cordate. *S.*

17—2. GNAPHALIUM. 49. 55.

margarita′ceum, (large-flowered life-everlasting. O. y. & w. Ju. ♃.) leaves linear-lanceolate, gradually narrowing, acute: stem branching above: corymb fastigiate: flowers pedicelled. Flowers with white pearly rays and yellow disks. 1—2 f. *S.*

polyceph″alum, (sweet-scented life-everlasting. O. y-w. Ju. ☉.) leaves lance-linear, acute, glabrous above, downy beneath: stem panicled, downy: corymbs terminal. 1—2 f. *S.*

5—1. GOMPHRENA. 54. 30.

Exotic.

globo′sa, (globe amaranth, bachelor's button. r. Au. ☉.) stem erect: leaves lance-ovate: heads solitary: peduncles 2-leaved.

18—1. GOODYERA. 7. 21.

pubes″cens, (rattle-snake leaf, scrophula-weed. O. y. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves radical, ovate, petioled, veins coloured, reticulate: scape sheathed; scape and flower pubescent: lip ovate-acuminate: petals ovate. 10—15 i. *S.*

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* See Erodium and Pelargonium.

15—13. GOSSYPIUM. 37. 74.

Exotic.

herba'ceum, (cotton. Au. ♂.) leaves 5-lobed, mucronate, one gland beneath: stem herbaceous, smooth. 5 f.

21—5. GYROPHORA. 57. 2.

pensylva'nica, frond tawny olive; under side ro[illegible]ulate: receptacles marginated. On rocks and mountains.

21—4. HALYMENIA. 57. 2.

palma'ta, frond flat, sub-palmate; divisions oblong, sub-simple: colour reddish-purple: substance at first thin and membranaceous, at length passing into a soft leathery substance. In the sea.

4—2. HAMAMELIS. 54. 78.

virgin''ica, (witch hazle. O. y. Oc. ♄.) leaves obovate, acute, toothed, cordate, with a small sinus. Var. *parvifolia*, leaves oblong-ovate, upper part undulate-coarse-crenate, pubescent and somewhat hirsute beneath: divisions of the calyx oblong: flowers in the fall, and perfects the fruit the next summer. 5—15 f. *S.*

13—1. HEDEOMA. 42. 39.

pulegio'ides, (penny-royal. O. b. J. ☉.) pubescent: leaves oblong, serrate: peduncles axillary, whorled. 6—8 i. *S.*

5—1. HEDERA. 46. 58.

helix, (english ivy. g-w. S. ♄.) leaves 3 or 5-lobed; floral ones ovate: umbel erect.

16—10. HEDYSARUM. 32. 93.

canaden''se, (bush trefoil. O. r. Ju. ♃.) erect, smoothish: leaves ternate, lance-oblong: stipules filiform: flowers racemed: bracts lance-ovate, acuminate, ciliate: joints of the loment obtusely triangled, hispid. 3 f. *S.*

17—2. HELENIUM. 49. 55.

autumna'le, (false sunflower. O. y. Au. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, serrate, sub-decurrent: stem corymbed above: disk florets 5-cleft: rays flat, reflexed. Var. *pubescens*, leaves pubescent. 3—5 f. *S.*

17—3. HELIANTHUS. 49. 55.

Exotic.

tubero'sus, (jerusalem artichoke. y. S. ♃.) leaves 3-nerved, scabrous; lower ones heart-ovate, upper ones ovate, acuminate: petioles ciliate. Root tuberous. Naturalized. 4—8 i.

an''nuus, (common sunflower. y. & w. Ju. ♃.) leaves all cordate, 3-nerved: peduncles thickening upwards: flowers nodding. 6—10 f.

17—2. HELIOPSIS. 49. 55.

lævis, (ox-eye. O. Ju. ♃.) stem glabrous: leaves opposite, ovate, serrate, 3-nerved, smooth. 3—5 f. *S.*

5—1. HELIOTROPIUM. 41. 42.

Southern.

in''dicum, (turnsole. E. b. Ju. ☉.) leaves heart-ovate, acute, roughish: spikes solitary: fruit bifid. 8—12 i.

12—13. HELLEBORUS. 26. 61.

foe'tidus, (hellebore.) stem many-flowered, leafy: leaves pedate, remotely serrate, coriaceous: corolla somewhat converging.

6—1. HEMEROCALLIS. 10. 16.

Exotic.

flava, (yellow day-lily. y. Ju. ♃.) leaves broad-linear, keeled: petals flat, acute; nerves of the petals undivided.

12—13. HEPATICA. 26. 61.

acutil''oba, (heart-liverleaf. O. w. & b. Ap. ♃.) leaves cordate, 3 to 5-lobed; lobes entire, acute: leaves of the calyx acute. Grows in woods, preferring the north side of hills and mountains. This is the Var. *acuta* of the *triloba* of Wildenow. 5 i.

america'na, (kidney-liverleaf. O. w. & b. Ap. ♃.) leaves heart-reniform, 3-lobed; lobes entire, round-obtuse: leaves of the calyx obtuse. Grows chiefly in woods, preferring the south side of hills and mountains. This has been mistaken for the *triloba* of W. 5 i.

[illegible]—13. HIBISCUS. 37. 74.

Exotic.

phœni'ceus, (phenicean mallows. r. Ju. ♃.) leaves ovate, acuminate, serrate and crenate, lower ones 3-cuspidate: peduncles jointed: seeds woolly. 6—8 f.

syri'acus, (syrian mallows. w. & p. Au. ♄.) leaves wedge-ovate, 3-lobed, toothed: outer calyx about 8-leaved, of the length of the inner. 5—10 f.

esculen''tus, (okra. y. Ju. ☉.) leaves heart-5-lobed, obtusish, toothed: petiole longer than the flower: outer calyx about 5-leaved, caducous, bursting lengthwise. 3 f.

17—1. HIERACIUM. 49. 53.

veno'sum, (vein-leaf hawkweed. O. y. Ju. ♃.) scape naked, corymb-panicled glabrous: leaves lance-obovate with thin hairs above and naked beneath, margin ciliate, glandular-toothed, veins coloured: calyx glabrous. 1—2 f. *S.*

auranti'acum, (orange hawkweed. y. ♃.) scape leafy, hisped: flowers corymbed: peduncles glomerate: leaves oblong, acutish, pilose-hisped.

1—1. HIPPURIS. 15. 88.

vulga'ris, (mares tail. y-g. M. ♃.) leaves linear, and lance-linear, verticillate. *S.*

3—2. HORDEUM. 4. 10.

juba'tum, (O. J. ♂.) lateral florets abortive, neuter: awns of the calyx and corolla 6 times as long as the flowers. 2 f. *S.*

Exotic.

vulga're, (barley. Ju. ☉.) florets all perfect, awned, in two erect rows.

10—3. HORTENSIA. 13. 84.

Exotic.

specio'sa, (changeable hydrangea. r. & w. J. ♄.) leaves broadly ovate, serrate, acuminate: flowers corymbed. From the East Indies. This is the common flower-pot shrub, usually called hyderindia.

4—1. HOUSTONIA. 47. 57.

cœru'lea, (venus' pride, forget-me-not. O. b. & w. M. ♃.) stem erect, setaceous, dichotomous: radical leaves spatulate; cauline ones oblanceolate, opposite: peduncles 1-flowered, elongated. 4—6 i. *S.*

20—5. HUMULUS. 53. 98.

lu'pulus, (hop. O. g-y. Au. ♃.) stem twining with the sun: leaves lobed. One of the best of tonics.

6—1. HYACINTHUS. 10. 16.

Exotic.

orienta'lis, (garden hyacinth. r. Ap. ♃.) corolla funnel-form, half-6-cleft, ventricose at the base.

mus''cari, (musk hyacinth. b. Ap. ♃.) corollas ovate, all equal.

botryo'ides, (grape hyacinth. b. Ap. ♃.) corollas globose, uniform: leaves cylindric, channelled, straight.

10—2. HYDRANGEA. 13. 84.

vulga'ris, (hydrangea. E. w. Au. ♄.) leaves oblong-ovate, obtuse at the base, acuminate, toothed, glabrous beneath: cymes naked. 5 f. *S.*

Hydrangea. *See* HORTENSIA.

12—13. HYDRASTIS. 26. 61.

canaden''sis, (orange root. O. w-r. Ap. ♃.) stem with two opposite leaves above: leaves petioled, emarginate at the base, palmate, serrate, gashed: peduncle terminal, solitary, 1-flowered. Roots yellow. *S.*

12—5. HYPERICUM. 20. 68.

perfora'tum, (O. y. J. ♃.) erect, branching: stem 2-edged: leaves oblong obtuse, transparently punctate: panicle terminal, brachiate, leafy: petals twice as long as the acute, lanceolate calyx. This is the common St. John's wort, so troublesome to farmers. 1—3 f. S.

virgin″icum, (O. p. Au. ♃.) flowers with 9 or 12 stamens, distinctly arranged in three parcels, and separated by nectaries: leaves oval, obtuse, clasping: stem compressed. 1—2 f. S.

6—1. HYPOXIS. 10. 17.

erec″ta, (star-grass. O. y. Ju. ♃.) pilose: scape 2 or 3-flowered: leaves lance-linear: divisions of the corolla lance-oblong. Var. *graminea*, has longer and narrower leaves; more flowers, longer lance-linear divisions to the corolla—and altogether a more grassy appearance.

4—1. ICTODES. 2. 7.

fœ′tida, (skunk cabbage, fetid hellebore. O. p. Ap. ♃.) stemless leaves radical, heart-ovate, very large: spadix supporting the flowers in a sub-globose head. Odour resembles that of the skunk. S.

4—4. ILEX. 43. 95.

opa′ca, (evergreen holly. E. g-w. M. ♄.) leaves evergreen, ovate, acute, spinose glabrous, flat: flowers scattered at the base of the shoots of the preceding year. A middle sized tree. S.

5—1. IMPATIENS. 24. 73.

pal″lida, (jewel-weed, touch-me-not. O. y. Ju. ☉.) peduncles solitary, 2 & 4-flowered: nectary obtusely conic, dilated, shorter than the petals: spur recurved, very short: flowers sparingly punctate: leaves rhomb-ovate, mucronate-toothed. 2—4 f. S.

16—10. INDIGOFERA. 32. 93.

Exotic.

tincto′ria, (indigo. ♄.) leaves pinnate, oblong, glabrous, in four pairs; racemes shorter than the leaves: legume terete, somewhat arched. From the East Indies.

17—2. INULA. 49. 55.

Exotic.

hele′nium, (elecampane. y. Au. ♃.) leaves clasping, ovate, rugose, tomentose beneath: scales of the calyx ovate. Naturalized. 3—5 f.

5—1. IPOMEA. 29. 43.

nil, (morning glory. E. b. Ju. ☉.) hirsute: leaves cordate, 3-lobed: peduncles short, 1—3-flowered: calyx very villose, long acuminate. S.

bona nox, (E. w. Ju. ☉.) very glabrous: leaves cordate, entire or angled: peduncle 1 to 3-flowered: calyx awned: corolla undivided, tube long.

3—1. IRIS. 6. 18.

versic″olor, (O. b. J. ♃.) leaves ensiform: stem acute on one side: capsules oblong, 3-sided with obtuse angles. 2—3 f. S.

prismat″ica, (boston iris. E. b. y. J. ♃.) flowers beardless: leaves linear: stem round, many-flowered: germs triangular, twice grooved on the sides. 1—2 f.

Exotic.

plica′ta, (garden iris. p. w. M. ♃.) bearded: stem many-flowered, higher than the leaves: petals undulate-plicate, erect ones broadest. 18—24 i.

pu′mila, (dwarf-flower-de-luce. b. M. ♃.) bearded: scape 1-flowered: leaves ensiform, glabrous: tube of the corolla exsert: petals oblong, obtuse. 6—10 i.

ochrole′uca, (yellow iris. y. M.) beardless: leaves ensiform, depressed, striate: scape sub-terete: germ 6-cornered.

13—1. ISANTHUS. 42. 39.

cœru′leus, (blue gentian, false pennyroyal. O. b. Ju. ☉.) viscid-hairy: leaves lance-oval, acute at both ends, 3-nerved: peduncles 1 or 2-flowered.

3—1. IXIA. 6. 18.

chinen″sis, (blackberry lily. y. r. J. ♃.) corolla about 6-petalled: stem flexuose: leaves ensiform.

2—1. JASMINUM. 44. 37.

frut''icans, (jasmine. y. ♄.) leaves alternate, ternate, simple: leafets obovate, wedge-form, obtuse: branches angled.
officina'le, (jasmine. w. ♄.) leaves pinnate, opposite: leafets acuminate.

19—12. JUGLANS. 50. 94.

cine'rea, (butternut. O. M. ♄.) leafets numerous, lanceolate, serrate, rounded at the base, soft-pubescent beneath: petioles villose: fruit oblong-ovate, viscid, long-peduncled: nut roughly sculptured.

6—1. JUNCUS. 5. 13.

effu'sus, (E. ♃.) scape minutely striate, (soft:) panicle loose, very branching: spreading: leafets of the calyx lanceolate, acuminate, rather longer than the obovate, obtuse capsule. 2—3 f.

21—3. JUNGERMANNIA. 57. 3.

complana'ta, stem branched, creeping: leaves roundish, very entire; ears sub-ovate, flattish. On smooth bark: very rarely on rocks.
palma'ta, frond short, somewhat ascending, digitate-palmate, nerveless. Dark green. Rotten wood, in wet places. *Remark.* Most of the Jungermanniae are in fruit late in the spring; some however, in the winter.

10—1. KALMIA. 18. 50.

latifo'lia, (laurel. E. w. & r. Ju. ♄.) leaves long-petioled, scattered, and in threes, oval, smooth both sides: corymbs terminal, with viscid hairs. 3—20 f.
angustifo'lia, (sheep laurel. O. J. ♄.) leaves in threes, petioled, oblong, obtuse, sometimes rusty beneath: corymbs lateral: bracts linear: peduncles and calyx with glandular hairs. Var. *ovata*, taller: leaves broader, subovate. 2—3 f.

17—1. LACTUCA. 49. 53.

Exotic.

sati'va, (lettuce. y. Ju. ☉.) leaves roundish; cauline ones cordate: stem corymbed. Var. *romana*, has oblong, straight leaves, narrowed at the base. Var. *crispa*, has sinuate-crenate leaves, toothed, undulated, crisped; radical ones hairy on the keel. Var. *laciniata*, has the lower leaves pinnatifid, and the upper ones runcinate.

16—10. LATHYRUS. 32. 93.

Exotic.

odora'tus, (sweet pea. J. ☉.) peduncles 2-flowered: tendril with 2 ovate oblong leafets: legumes hirsute.
latifo'lius, (everlasting pea. Au. ♃.) peduncles many-flowered: tendril with 2 lance-ovate leaves; membranaceous between joints.

9—1. LAURUS. 12. 27.

ben''zoin, (spice bush, fever bush. O. g. y. Ap. ♄.) leaves wedge-obovate, whitish sub-pubescent beneath: flowers in clustered umbels: buds and pedicels glabrous. 4—10 f.
sas''safras, (sassafras tree. O. y. M. ♄.) leaves entire and lobed on the same plant: flowers mostly dioecious. 10—25 f.

Exotic.

camphora'tus, (camphor tree. ♄.) leaves about 3-nerved, lance-ovate: panicle spreading. From Japan.

13—1. LAVANDULA. 42. 39.

Exotic.

spi'ca, (lavender. Au. ♃.) leaves sessile, lance-linear, with revolute margins: spike interruptedly naked.

10—1. LEIOPHYLLUM. 18. 50.

buxifo'lium, (sand myrtle. E. w. ♄.) leaves small, lance-oval, entire, glabrous, lucid, revolute at the margin: corymbs terminal. 6—18 i.

17—1. LEONTODON. 49. 53.

tarax''acum, (dandelion. O. y. Ap. ♃.) outer calyx reflexed: scape 1-flowered: leaves runcinate, with toothed divisions. Introduced.

13—1. LEONURUS. 42. 39.

Exotic.

cardi'aca, (motherwort. w-r. Ju. ♃.) leaves 3-lobed, toothed, bases wedge-form: calyx prickly, less than the corolla. Naturalized. 2—4 f.

14—1. LEPIDIUM. 39. 63.

Exotic.

sati'vum, (peppergrass. w. Ju. ☉.) leaves oblong, many-cleft.

2—1. LIGUSTRUM. 44. 37.

vulga're, (prim. E. w. J. ♄.) leaves lanceolate, acutish: panicle compact. Perhaps introduced.

6—1. LILIUM. 10. 14.

philadel''phicum, (red lily. O. r. y. J. ♃.) leaves whorled, lance-linear: corolla erect, bell-form, spreading: petals lanceolate, having claws. 1—3 f.

canaden''se, (nodding lily. O. y. r. Ju. ♃.) leaves remotely whorled, lanceolate: peduncles terminal, elongated, mostly in threes: corolla nodding: petals spreading. 2—3 f.

super''bum, (superb lily. E. y. p. Ju. ♃.) leaves lance-linear, 3-nerved, glabrous: lower ones whorled; upper ones scattered: flowers in a pyramid-raceme, recurved: petals revolute. 3—6 f.

Exotic.

can''didum, (white lily. w. J. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, scattered, tapering to the base: corolla bell-form, glabrous within.

bulb''iferum, (orange lily. y. J. ♃.) leaves scattered, 3-nerved: corolla campanulate, erect, scabrous within.

4—1. LINNAEA. 48. 58.

borea'lis, (twin-flower. O. w-r. J. ♃.) stem prostrate: branches erect, each bearing 2 flowers: leaves roundish, crenate. Woods.

5—5. LINUM. 14. 82.

Exotic.

usitatis''simum, (flax. b. Ju. ☉.) leafets of the calyx ovate, acute, 3-nerved: petals crenate: leaves lanceolate, alternate: stem sub-solitary.

12—13. LIRIODENDRON. 52. 75.

tulipif''era, (white wood, tulip tree. O. y. r. J. ♄.) leaves truncate at the end, with 2 side lobes. A beautiful flowering tree. 90—150 f. *S.*

5—1. LOBELIA. 29. 52.

cardina'lis, (cardinal flower. O. r. Ju. ♃.) erect, simple, pubescent: leaves lance-ovate, acuminate, denticulate: racemes somewhat one-sided, many-flowered: stamens longer than corollas. Damp. 1—2 f.

infla'ta, (wild tobacco. O. b. Ju. ☉.) erect, branching, very hirsute: leaves ovate, serrate: racemes leafy: capsules inflated. 12—18 i.

kal''mii, (O. b. Ju. ☉.) slender, erect, sub-simple: radical leaves spatulate; cauline ones linear, delicately toothed: flowers racemed, alternate, remote, pedicelled. 6—24 i. *S.*

3—2. LOLIUM. 4. 10.

peren''ne, (E. M. ♃.) florets much longer than the calyx, unarmed, linear-oblong, compressed. Introduced. 18 i.

5—1. LONICERA. 48. 58.

semper''virens, (E. r. y. M. ♄.) spikes with distant, nakedish whorls: corollas sub-equal; tube ventricose above: leaves ovate and obovate, glaucous beneath; upper ones connate-perfoliate. Leaves perennial. *S.*

Exotic.

caprifo'lium, (honeysuckle. ♄.) corollas ringent-like, terminal: sessile leaves connate-perfoliate at the top.)

periclym''enum, (woodbine. J. ♄.) flowers in ovate, imbricate, terminal heads: leaves all distinct. Var. *quercifolia*, leaves sinuate.

14—1. LUNARIA. 39. 63.

Exotic.

an''nua. (honesty. p. ♂.) leaves obtusely toothed: silicles oval, obtuse at both ends. Naturalized.

redivi'va, (satin flower. b-p. ♃.) leaves with mucronate teeth: silicles tapering to both ends. Flowers odorous.

17—10. LUPINUS. 32 93.

peren''nis, (wild lupine. O. b. M. ♃.) stem and leaves smoothish: leaves digitate, with about 8 to 10 leafets, which are oblanceolate, obtusish: calyxes alternate, not appendaged: banner emarginate, keel entire. 12—18 i. *S.*

Exotic.

hirsu'tus, (garden lupine. b. ⊙.) calyxes appendaged, alternate: banner 2-parted; keel 3-toothed.

10—5. LYCHNIS. 22. 82.

Exotic.

chalcedon''ica, (scarlet lichnis. r. J. ♃.) flowers fascicled, level-top, or convex.

floscuc''uli, (ragged robin. ♃.) petals torn: capsule 1-celled, roundish.

4—1. LYCIUM. 28. 41.

Exotic.

bar''barum, (matrimony vine, J. r. y. ♄.) stem angled: branches erect: leaves lanceolate, tapering to both ends: calyx mostly 3-cleft.

21—6. LYCOPERDON. 58 1.

bovis''ta, (common puff-ball. O.) at first white and obconic, becoming black and spherical: outer coat downy, which pealing off, leaves the leathery inner coat: seeds black, lighter than air, and appearing like smoke. In meadows.

21—1. LYCOPODIUM. 55. 5.

complana'tum, (ground-pine. E. g-y. Ju. ♃.) creeping, erectish: branches alternate, dichotomous: leaves bifareous, connate, spreading at the tips: spikes in pairs, peduncled. Woods. *S.*

5—1. LYSIMACHIA. 20. 34.

stricta, (loose strife. O. y. Ju. ♃.) raceme terminal, very long, lax: leaves opposite, lanceolate, sessile: petals lanceolate, spreading. 1—2 f. *S.*

cilia'ta, (O. y. J. ♃.) sub-pubescent: leaves opposite, long-petioled, sub-cordate-oval; petioles ciliate: pedicels somewhat in pairs: flowers nodding. 2—4 f. *S.*

quadriflo'ra, (♃.) branching: stem smooth: leaves sessile, opposite, very long linear: peduncles in fours, sub-terminal, 1-flowered. 2—3 f. *S.*

13—1. MACROTYS. 26. 61.

racemo'sa, (bug-bane, black snake-root, cohosh. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves decompound; leafets oblong-ovate, gash-toothed: racemes in wand-like spikes: capsules ovate. Woods. 3—9 f. *S.*

12—13. MAGNOLIA. 52. 75.

Southern.

grandiflo'ra, (big laurel, magnolia. O. w. M. ♄.) leaves evergreen, oval thick, leathery: petals broad-obovate, abruptly narrowed into a claw. 60—80 f.

15—13. MALVA. 37. 74.

rotundifo'lia, (low mallows. O. r. w. J. ♃.) leaves heart-orbicular, obsoletely 5-lobed: peduncles bearing the fruit declined: stem prostrate. Probably introduced.

Exotic.

sylves''tris, (mallows. r-b. J. ♂. and ♃.) stem erect: leaves about 7-lobed acutish: peduncles and petioles hairy.

crispa, (curled mallows. Au. ⊙.) stem erect: leaves angular, crisped: flowers axillary, glomerate.

21—3. MARCHANTIA. 57. 3.

polymor'pha, (brook liverwort. O. g-y. Ju. ♃.) pistillate receptacles radiated; staminate ones peduncled, peltate: fronds crowded together, lobed, nerved, and covered with small decussate veins. Pistillate peduncles very long: nerves of the frond generally brown. On earth and stones in wet or damp places.

13—1. MARRUBIUM. 42. 39.

vulga're, (horehound. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves round ovate, toothed, rugose-veined: calyx toothed, setaceous, uncinate. Introduced. *S.*

14—2. MELAMPYRUM. 40. 35.

america'num, (cow-wheat. O. y. Ju. ☉.) slender: lower leaves linear, entire; floral ones lanceolate, toothed behind: flowers axillary, distinct. Var. *latifolium*, has very broad leaves. Woods. *S.*

16—10. MELILOTUS. 32. 93.

· *alba*, (white melilot-clover. w. J. ☉.) stem erect: leafets variable (oval, ovate, obovate, and oblanceolate) mucronately serrulate: banner *longer** than the wings: racemes axillary, panicled; the longest raceme 6 to 10 times as long as the longest leafet at its base: legumes oval. 3 to 6 f. Probably introduced; but now very common and growing wild. *S.*

13—1. MELISSA. 42. 39.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (balm. w. b. Ju. ♃.) flowers whorled half way round, sub-sessile: bracts oblong, pedicelled: leaves ovate, acute, serrate. Naturalized.

13—1. MENTHA. 42. 39.

Exotic.

piperi'ta, (peppermint. p. Au. ♃.) spikes obtuse, interrupted below: leaves subovate, somewhat glabrous, petioled: stem glabrous at the base. Naturalized. 1—2. f.

vir''idis, (spear-mint. p. Au.) leaves lanceolate, sessile: spikes elongated, interrupted: stamens long. 1—2 f.

11—5. MESEMBRYANTHEMUM. 13. 87.

Exotic.

crystalli'num, (ice plant. w. Au. ☉.) branching: leaves alternate, ovate, papillose: flowers sessile: calyx broad-ovate, acute, retuse.

13—2. MIMULUS. 40. 40.

ringens, (monkey-flower. O. b. Ju. ♃.) erect, glabrous: leaves sessile, lanceolate, acuminate, serrate: peduncles axillary, opposite, longer than the flower: teeth of the calyx acuminate. 1—2 f. *S.*

5—1. MIRABILIS. 54. 32.

Exotic.

jal''apa, (four o'clock. r. y. Ju. ♃.) flowers heaped, peduncled: leaves glabrous.

19—15. MOMORDICA. 34. 97.

echina'ta, (O. w. Au. ☉.) pomaceous: berry 4-seeded, roundish, setose-echinate: leaves cordate, 5-lobe-angled, acuminate, entire. Calyx 6-cleft: corolla 6-parted.

2—1. MONARDA. 42. 39.

did''yma, (mountain mint. O. r. J. ♃.) leaves ovate, acuminate, sub-cordate, somewhat hairy: flowers in simple or proliferous heads: outer bracts large, coloured, lanceolate. Var. *angustifolia*, leaves lance-ovate, acuminate, pubescent: stem pubescent. 18—24 i. *S.*

10—1. MONOTROPA. 18. 51.

uniflo'ra, (bird's nest, indian pipe. O. w. J. ♃.) stem 1-flowered: flower nodding at first, at length erect: scales of the stem approximate. Whole plant ivory-white at first. 4—8 i.

19—4. MORUS. 53. 98.

Exotic.

alba, (white mulberry. M. ♄.) leaves heart-form, with oblique bases, ovate or lobed, unequally serrate, smoothish. From China and Persia. Naturalized. 15—20 f.

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* Suggested by H. H. E.

21—6. MUCOR. 58. 1.

aspergil''lus, (mould.) stipe filiform, dichotomous: little heads terminal, subconjugate, oblong when mature. On putrid fungi in autumn.

5—1. MYOSOTIS. 41. 42.

arven''sis, (forget-me-not. E. w-b. J. ☉.) seeds smooth: calyx leaves oval. acuminate, very hirsute, longer than the tube of the corolla: stem very branching: racemes conjugate: leaves lance-oblong, hirsute. 4—8 i. S.

Southern.

na'na, (b. & y. ♃.) leaves oblong, villose: racemes few-flowered: seeds smoothish; marginate serrulate.

11—1. MYRTUS. 19. 39.

Exotic.

commu'nis, (myrtle. w. Ju. ♄.) flowers solitary: involucrum 2-leaved: leaves ovate.

6—1. NARCISSUS. 9. 17.

Exotic.

pseudo-narcis''sus, (daffodil. M. ♃.) spatha 1-flowered: nectary bell-form, erect, crisped, equalling the ovate petals.

tazet''ta, (polyanthos. M. ♃.) spatha many-flowered: nectary bell-form. plicate, truncate, thrice as short as the petals: petals alternately broader: leaves flat.

jonquil''la, (jonquil. M. ♃.) spatha many-flowered: nectary bell-form, short: leaves subulate.

poet''icus, (poet's narcissus. ♃.) spatha 1-flowered: nectary wheel-form, very short, scarious, (red,) crenulate: leaves inflexed at the margin.

13—1. NEPETA. 42. 39.

cata'ria, (cat mint, catnep. O. b-w. ♃.) hoary-pubescent: flowers in whorled spikes; leaves petioled, cordate; tooth serrate.

5—1. NICOTIANA. 28. 41.

Exotic.

taba'cum, (virginian tobacco. w-r. Ju. ☉.) leaves lance-ovate, sessile, decurrent; flowers acute. Naturalized.

21—4. NOSTOC. 57. 2.

commu'ne, on the earth: frond plated-lobed, ventricose, gelatinous.—On the earth after a storm, an inch or two in extent, olive-green.

12—1. NUPHAR. 13. 62.

kalmia'na, (O. Ju. ♃.) leaves cordate, lobes near each other: calyx 5-leaved: stigma gashed, with 8 to 12 radiated lines.—Flowers small. Water.

12—1. NYMPHAEA. 13. 62.

odora'ta, (pond-lily. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves round-cordate, entire, sub-emarginate: lobes spreading asunder, acuminate, obtuse: petals equalling the 4-leaved calyx. *S.*

13—2. OBOLARIA. 40. 35.

virgin''ica, (penny-wort. E. r. Ap. ♃.) stem simple: leaves oblong, truncate, fleshy, purple beneath: flowers axillary, solitary, sessile. 3—4 i. *S.*

8—1. ŒNOTHERA. 17. 88.

Capsules elongated, sessile.

bien''nis, (scabish, tree-primrose. O. y. J. ♂.) stem villose, scabrous: leaves lance-ovate, flat, toothed: flowers sub-spiked, sessile: stamens shorter than the corolla. 3—5 f.

parviflo'ra, (E. y. Ju. ♂.) stem smooth, sub-villose: leaves lance-ovate, flat: stamens longer than the corolla.

21—1. ONOCLEA. 55. 5.

sensib''ilis, (sensitive fern. O. J. ♃.) barren frond pinnate; fertile one doubly-pinnate: stem glabrous. The leafets slowly approach each other, on squeezing the stem in the hand. *S.*

18—1. ORCHIS. 7. 21.

Roots oval or palmate.

specta'bilis, (O. r. M. ♃.) lip obovate, undivided, crenate, retuse: petals straight; lateral ones longest: spur clavate, shorter than the germ: bracts longer than the flowers: stem leafless. 3—6 i. *S.*

13—1. ORIGANUM. 42. 39.

vulga're, (wild marjoram. O. r. Ju. ♃.) spikes round-panicled, heaped: bracts ovate, longer than the calyx. 1—2 f. *S.*

Exotic.

majora'na, (sweet marjoram. ♄.) spikes roundish, ternate, compact, peduncled: leaves petioled, oval, obtuse, smoothish. 6—12. i.

6—1. ORNITHOGALUM. 10. 16.

umbella'tum, (star-of-bethlehem. M. ♃.) flowers corymbed, peduncles longer than the bracts: filaments subulate. Naturalized. 6—8 i.

6—2. ORYZA. 4. 10.

sati'va, (rice. ☉.) culm jointed: leaves clasping: panicle terminal.

21—1. OSMUNDA. 55. 5.

cinnamo'mea, (flowering fern. O. y. J. ♃.) barren frond doubly pinnatifid; segments oval, entire: fertile fronds with opposite racemes, woolly. 3—6 f. *S.*

10—5. OXALIS. 14. 73.

acetosel''la, (wood-sorrel. O. w. r. M. ♃.) stemless: scape 1-flowered, longer than the leaves: leaves ternate, broad obcordate, with rounded lobes: styles as long as the inner stamens: root dentate.

8—1. OXYCOCCUS. 18. 51.

macrocar''pus, (cranberry. O. r. J. ♄.) creeping: stem ascending: leaves oblong, flattish, obtuse, becoming white beneath: pedicels elongated: divisions of the corolla lance-linear. Wet.

12—3. PÆONIA. 36. 61.

officina'lis, (peony. r. J. ♃.) leaves decompound; leafets lobed, lobes broad-lanceolate: capsules downy.

5—2. PANAX. 46. 59.

quinquefo'lia, (ginseng. O. w. M. ♃.) root fusiform: leaves ternate, quinate. leafets oval, acuminate, petioled, serrate. Larger than the last. 1—2 f. *S.*

3—2. PANICUM. 4. 10.

crus-gal''li, (barn grass. O. Au. ☉.) racemes alternate and in pairs, compound: rachis 5-angled: glumes terminating in hispid bristles: sheath glabrous. 2—4 f. *S.*

12—1. PAPAVER. 27. 62.

Exotic.

somnif''erum, opium poppy. J ☉.) calyx and capsule glabrous: leaves clasping, gashed, glaucous.

21—5. PARMELIA. 57. 2.

capera'ta, (shield lichen.) frond orbicular, pale yellow becoming green, rugose, at length granulated, dark and hispid beneath: lobes plicate, sinuate-laciniate, roundish, somewhat entire: receptacles scattered, sub-fuscous: margin incurved, entire, at length pulverulent. On old timber, &c.

5—4. PARNASSIA. 14. 64.

america'na, (flowering plantain. w. y. p. Ju. ♃.) leaves radical (often a leaf on the scape) heart-orbicular, 5 to 9-nerved: nectaries five, each divided into 3 filaments terminated by little spherical heads. Damp or wet. 6—18 i.

15—5. PASSIFLORA. 34. 97.

Exotic.

cœru'lea, (blue passion-flower. b. Ju. ♄.) leaves palmate, 5-parted, entire: petioles glandular: involucrum 3-leaved, entire: threads of the crown shorter than the corolla.

5—2. PASTINACA. 45. 60.

Exotic.

sati'va, (parsnip. y. Au. ♂.) leaves simply pinnate: leafets glabrous. Var. *arvensis*, leafets sub-pubescent. This variety is often found in situations which almost prove it to be indigenous.

13—2. PEDICULARIS. 40. 35.

canaden"sis, (louse-wort. O. y-p. M. ♃.) stem simple: leaves pinnatifid, gash-toothed: heads leafy at the base, hirsute: corolla with a setaceous, 2 toothed upper lip: calyx obliquely truncate. 6—12 i. *S.*

15—7. PELARGONIUM. 14. 73.

Exotic.

1. *Nearly stemless: root tuberous.*

triste, (mourning geranium.) umbel simple: leaves rough-haired, pinnate: leafets bipinnatifid; divisions oblong acute. Flowers dark-green.

daucifo'lium, carrot geranium. ♃.) scape very simple: leaves thrice pinnate, hirsute: leafets lance-linear.

2. *Leaves simple, not angled.*

odoratis"simum, (sweet-scented geranium. ♄.) peduncles sub-5-flowered: leaves round-cordate, very soft.

3. *Leaves simple, more or less angled or lobed.*

zona'le, (horse-shoe geranium. ♄.) umbels many flowered: leaves heart-orbicular, obsoletely lobed, toothed, with a coloured zone or band around near the margin.

in"quinans, (scarlet geranium. ♄.) umbels many-flowered: leaves round reniform, hardly divided, crenate, viscid-downy.

acerifo'lium, (lemon or maple-leaf geranium. ♄.) umbels about 5-flowered: leaves 5-lobe-palmate, serrate; below wedge-form, undivided.

capita'tum, (rose-scented geranium. ♄.) flowers capitate: leaves cordate, lobed, waved, soft: stem diffuse.

quercifo'lium, (oak-leaf geranium. ♄.) umbels sub-many-flowered: leaves cordate, pinnatifid, crenate: sinuses rounded: filaments ascending at the apex.

grave'olens, (sweet-rose geranium. ♄.) umbels many-flowered, sub-capitate: leaves palmate-7-lobed; divisions oblong, obtuse; margins revolute.

10—5. PENTHORUM. 13. 83.

sedo'ides, (virginian orpine. O. g-y. Ju. ♃.) stem branching, angled: leaves lanceolate, sub-sessile, unequally and densely serrate: spikes secund, terminal, panicled, alternate and cymed: seeds pitted. 12—18 i. *S.*

13—2. PENTSTEMON. 40. 45.

pubes"cens, (beard-tongue. O. w-p. J. ♃.) stem hairy: leaves serrulate, lance-oblong, sessile: flowers panicled: the barren filament bearded from the apex to below the middle. Var. *latifolia*, has broad smooth leaves. Var. *angustifolia*, has narrow, hairy, obscurely denticulate leaves. 1—2 f. *S.*

3—2. PHALARIS. 4. 10.

america'na, (ribbon grass, wild canary grass. E. Ju. ♃.) panicle oblong, spiked: glumes of the calyx boat-shaped, serrulate: corolla unequal: rudiments hairy. Var. *picta*, leaves variously striped. This variety is the ribbon grass of the gardens. 2—5 f. *S.*

16—10. PHASEOLUS. 32. 93.

Exotic.

luna'tus, (carolina bean, lima bean. g-w. Ju. ☉.) twining: legumes scymitar-form, sub-lunate, smooth: seeds compressed.

vulga'ris, (common-pale-bean. p. w. Ju. ☉.) stem twining: racemes solitary shorter than the leaves: peduncles in pairs: bracts smaller than the calyx spreading: legumes pendulous. From the East Indies.

na'nus, (bush bean, six weeks bean. ☉.) stem erect, smooth: bracts larger than the calyx: legumes pendulous, compressed, rugose. Seeds variously coloured.

11—1. PHILADELPHUS. 19. 89.

Exotic.

corona'rius, (mock orange, false syringa. w. J. ♄.) styles distinct: leaves ovate, sub-dentate.

3—2. PHLEUM. 4. 10.

praten''se, (timothy grass. O. J. ♃. and ♂.) spike cylindric, calyx mucronate-awned; keel ciliate: awn shorter than the calyx: culm erect. Introduced. 2—3 f. *S.*

5—1. PHLOX. 20. 44.

panicula'ta, (smooth-stem lichnidia. r. w. Ju. ♃.) glabrous, erect: leaves lanceolate, narrowing gradually, flat; margins rough; corymbs panicled: divisions of the corolla rounded: calyx awned. Cultivated. 2—3 f. *S.*

subula'ta, (mountain pink. O. r. M. ♃.) cæspitose, white pubescent: leaves linear, pungent, ciliate: corymbs few flowered: pedicels 3-cleft: divisions of the corolla wedge-form, emarginate: teeth of the calyx subulate, scarcely shorter than the tube of the corolla. Cultivated. 3—6 i. *S.*

10—10. PHYTOLACCA. 54. 29.

decan''dra, (poke-weed. O. w. Ju. ♃) leaves ovate, acute at both ends: flowers racemed: berries flattened at the ends. 3—6 f. *S.*

19—16. PINUS. 51. 100.

1. *Leaves solitary, with separate bases.* ABIES.

canaden''sis, (hemlock tree. O. M. ♄.) leaves flat, denticulate, 2-ranked: strobiles ovate, terminal, scarcely longer than the leaves. The bark is used in tanning leather. *S.*

2. *Leaves many, sheathed at the base.* PINUS.

(*Leaves in pairs.*)

resino'sa, (yellow pine, norway pine, red pine. O. M. ♄.) leaves and sheaths elongated: strobiles ovate-conic, rounded at the base, sub-solitary, about half as long as the leaves: scales dilated in the middle, unarmed. Bark of a reddish colour, and much smoother than the rigida and strobus. Often grows very tall and straight. *S.*

(*Leaves in threes.*)

rig''ida, (pitch pine. O. M. ♄.) leaves with abbreviated sheaths: staminate aments erect-incumbent: strobiles ovate, scattered or aggregated: spines of the scale reflexed. Though very common, it grows the most plentifully on barren sandy plains. *S.*

3. *Leaves many, in a fascicle.* LARIX.

pen''dula, (black larch, tamarack, hack-matack. O. M. ♄.) leaves deciduous: strobiles oblong: margins of the scales inflexed: bracts guitar-form, with a slender point.

16—10. PISUM. 32. 93.

Exotic.

sati'vum, (pea, p. w. J. ☉.) petioles terete: stipules round and crenate at the base: peduncles many-flowered. Var. *umbellatum*, (bouquet pea,) has the stipules 4-cleft, acute. Var. *quadratum*, (quadrate pea,) fruit ash-colour, 4-sided. Var. *humile*, (dwarf pea,) stem erect, not climbing: leafets roundish.

4—1. PLANTAGO. 54. 31.

ma'jor, (plantain. O. w. J. ♃.) leaves ovate, sub-dentate, sub-glabrous: scape terete: spike oblong, imbricate. 6—24 i. *S.*

20—13. PLATANUS. 50. 99.

occidenta'lis, (button wood, american plane-tree, false sycamore. O. J. ♄.) leaves quinquangular, obsoletely lobed, toothed, pubescent beneath: stem and branches becoming white. Grows to a greater size than any other tree in America.

3—2. POA. 4. 10.

Remarks. The word *poa* is pure Greek, and signifies pasture or fodder. Linnæus applied the name to this genus, because it includes the most common *pasture grass* and *meadow grass*. The poa pratensis, aided by the agrostis vulgaris, constitutes most of those beautiful carpets which cover our fields, lawns, and road-sides.

an″nua, (Ap. ☉.) panicle sub-secund, divaricate: spikelets ovate-oblong, 5-flowered: florets free: culm oblique, compressed: root fibrous. 6—8 i. *S.*

praten″sis, (O. J. ♃.) panicle diffuse: upper leaves much shorter than the smooth sheaths: florets acute, 5-nerved, webbed at the base: stipule short truncate: root creeping. 2—3 f. *S.*

12—1. PODOPHYLLUM. 27. 61.

pelta′tum, (wild mandrake, may-apple. O. w. M. ♃.) stem terminated with 2 peltate palmate leaves: flower single, inserted in the fork, formed by the petioles of the leaves. Sometimes the plant is 3-leaved, and sometimes the flower is inserted on the side of one of the petioles. 1—2 f. *S.*

18—1. POGONIA. 7. 21.

ophioglosso′ides, (snake mouth arethusa. O. r. Ju. ♃.) root fibrous: scape with 2 distant leaves, 1 or 2-flowered: leaves lance-oval: lip fringed. 8—12 i. *S.*

6—1. POLYANTHES. 10. 17.

Exotic.

tubero′sa, (tuberose. ♃.) flowers alternate, in pairs: rootlets tuberous: scape scaly: leaves linear, long. Sweet scented.

16—6. POLYGALA. 33. 35.

paucifo′lia, (flowering wintergreen. O. r. M. ♃.) small, large-flowered: stem simple, erect, naked below: leaves ovate, acute, glabrous, near the top of the stem: flowers crested, terminal, about in threes. 3—4 i. *S.*

sen″ega, (seneca snake-root, mountain flax. O. r. or w. J. ♄.) stem erect, simple, leafy: leaves alternate, lanceolate: spike terminal, filiform: flowers alternate, not crested. Var. *albida*, leaves lanceolate or oval: spike somewhat crowded: flowers white, sub-sessile. 8—14 i. *S.*

8—3. POLYGONUM. 12. 28.

avicula′re, (knot-grass. O. w. M. ♃.) stamens 8, styles 3: leaves lanceolate, scabrous at the margin: stipules short, lacerate: stem procumbent: flowers sub-sessile, axillary, minute. 6—12 i. *S.*

Exotic.

fagop″yrum, (buck-wheat. r-w. Ju. ☉.) stamens 8: styles 3: racemes panicled: leaves heart-sagittate: stem erectish, unarmed: angles of the seeds equal. 1—2 f.

21—1. POLYPODIUM. 55. 5.

vulga′re, (polypod. O. Ju. ♃.) frond deeply pinnatifid: divisions lance-linear, obtuse, crenulate, approximate, upper ones gradually smaller: fruit dots solitary: root chaffy. 8—12 i. *S.*

21—2. POLYTRICHUM. 56. 4.

juniperi′num, (hair-cap moss. O. M. ♃.) stem generally simple: leaves lance-linear, entire, flattish, somewhat spreading: the apophysis depressed. In dry woods, &c.

6—1. PONTEDERIA. 6. 17.

corda′ta, (pickerel weed. O. b. Ju. ♃.) leaves heart-oblong, obtuse: spike many-flowered, compact: divisions of the corolla oblong. Var. *angustifolia*, leaves elongated-triangular, truncate and sub-cordate at the base. 1—2 f.

20—8. POPULUS. 50. 99.

tremulo′ides, (white poplar, american aspen. E. Ap. ♄.) leaves heart-roundish, abruptly acuminate; tooth-serrulate, glabrous, a little pubescent at the margin, with two glands at the base on the upper side: petioles compressed, in the young state silky. 20—30 f.

Exotic.

dilata'ta, (lombardy poplar, italian poplar. Ap. ♄.) leaves glabrous both sides, acuminate, serrate, deltoid, the breadth equal to or exceeding the length: branches erect, close to the stem. It is said no pistillate plant of this species has been brought to America. Consequently no seeds are obtained from it, and it has not been re-produced here from seed. 40—80 f.

12—1. PORTULACCA. 54. 86.

olera'cea, (purslane. O. y. J. ⊙.) leaves wedge-form: flowers sessile. *S.*

11—13. POTENTILLA. 35. 92.

Leaves digitate in fives, rarely in sevens.

canaden'sis, (common five-finger. O. y. M. ♃.) procumbent, sub-ramose. whitish-silky: stipules ovate, gashed: leaves wedge-obovate, gash-toothed: stem ascending and creeping, hirsute: peduncles solitary, elongated: divisions of the calyx lance-linear: petals orbicular, sub-entire, of the length of the calyx. This plant is so long in flower, and assumes so many forms and sizes, that students in botany often make several species of it. 2—18 i. *S.*

argen''tea, (silver five-finger. O. w-y. Ju. ♃.) stem prostrate and ascending, rarely sub-erect, branching, white-downy: stipules ovate-acute: leaves wedge-form, gash-toothed, silvery white down beneath: petals retuse, scarcely longer than the calyx. 4—10 i. *S.*

Leaves more or less pinnate.

anseri'na, (tansey cinquefoil. O. y. J. ♃.) creeping: leaves interruptedly pinnate, numerous, gash-serrate, silky, white-downy beneath: peduncles solitary, 1-flowered.

19—13. POTERIUM. 54. 92.

Exotic.

sanguisor''ba, (burnet. J. ♃.) stem somewhat angled, unarmed: leaves pinnate: leafets serrate: flowers in heads.

17—1. PRENANTHES. 49. 53.

alba, (white lettuce. O. w. p. Au. ♃.) radical leaves angled, hastate, toothed, somewhat lobed; cauline ones round-ovate, toothed, petioled; upper ones most lanceolate: panicle lax; the terminal fascicle nodding: calyx 8-cleft, 9 or 10-flowered. Var. *nana*, Bw. low: leaves 3-parted, hastate, ovate and lanceolate, sometimes all simple: racemes panicled or simple. 1—3 f. *S.*

5—1. PRIMULA. 21. 34.

Exotic.

aca'ulis, (primrose. ♃.) leaves rugose, toothed, hirsute beneath: scape 1-flowered.

auric''ula, (auricula primrose. ♃.) leaves serrate, fleshy, obovate: scape many-flowered: calyx mealy.

14—1. PRUNELLA. 42. 39.

vulga'ris, var. *pennsylvanica*, (heal-all, self-heal. O. J. ♃.) leaves petioled, oblong-ovate, toothed at the base: lips of the calyx unequal; upper one truncate, awned: stem ascending. 6—12 i. *S.*

12—1. PRUNUS. 36. 92.

Flowers in racemes.

virginia'na, (wild cherry, rum cherry, cabinet cherry. O. w. M. ♄.) racemes erect, elongated: leaves oval-oblong, acuminate, unequally serrate, glabrous both sides: petioles generally bearing 4 glands. In open fields the limbs of this tree spread out into an elegant oval top; but in dense forests it grows to a very great height, with a few contracted branches. *S.*

seroti'na, (choke-berry. O. w. J. ♄.) flowers in lax racemes: leaves oval, short-acuminate, opake, doubly and acutely serrate: midrib bearded on each side towards the base: petiole with 2 glands. This and the preceding species have been confounded by many Botanists. *S.*

canaden''sis, (O. w. ♄.) flowers in racemes: leaves glandless, broad-lanceolate, rugose, sharply serrate, pubescent both sides, tapering into the petiole. *S.*

Exotic.

spino'sa, (english sloe. ♄.) peduncles solitary: leaves lance-oval, pubescent beneath: fruit straight: branches thorny.

cer''asus, (garden cherry. w. r. ♄.) umbel sub-peduncled: leaves lance-ovate, glabrous, conduplicate.

domes''tica, (plumb. w. M. ♄.) peduncles sub-solitary: leaves lance-ovate, convolute: branches thornless. Var. *juliana*, (damson plum) fruit oblong, blue. Var. *claudiana*, (sweet plum, horse plum) fruit round, at first green, becoming yellowish. Var. *enucleata*, (stoneless plum) the putamen obsolete

21—1. PTERIS. 55. 5.

aquili'na, (common brake. O. Ju. ♃.) frond pinnate, 3-parted: barren branches doubly pinnate, with leafets lance-linear, obtuse-pinatifid, toothed; fertile branches pinnate, with leafets pinnatifid; divisions acutish, all ciliate. *S.*

10—1. PTEROSPORA. 18. 51.

androm''eda, (albany beech-drops. E. r-y. Ju. ⊙.) scape purple, very tall bearing a many-flowered raceme: flowers lateral and terminal, nodding: peduncles filiform, longer than the flowers: lanceolate scales below, none above. 1—2 f.

11—1. PUNICA. 36. 92.

Exotic.

grana'tum, (pomegranate. ♄.) leaves lanceolate: stem woody.

13—1. PYCNANTHEMUM. 42. 39.

Stamens exsert.

in''canum, (wild basil, mountain mint. O. w. r. Ju. ♃.) leaves oblong-ovate, acute, sub-serrate, white downy: flowers in compound heads, lateral ones peduncled: bracts setaceous. 1—5 f. *S.*

10—1. PYROLA. 18. 51.

rotundifo'lia, (shin-leaf, pear-leaf wintergreen. O. w. J. ♃.) style declined: leaves rounded or broad-oval obsoletely serrulate, sub-coriaceous, shining: petiole about as long as the lamina: scape many-flowered. 6—12 i.

11—5. PYRUS. 36. 92.

corona'ria, (crab apple. O. w-r. M. ♄.) leaves broad oval, at the base rounded, sub-angled or sub-lobed, serrate, smooth: peduncles corymbed. Flowers sweet scented. *S.*

Exotic.

commu'nis, (pear. E. w-r. M. ♄.) leaves ovate, serrate, (rarely entire: peduncles corymbed.

ma'lus, (apple. E. w-r. M. ♄.) flowers in sessile umbels: leaves ovate-oblong, acuminate, serrate, glabrous: claws of the petals shorter than the calyx: styles glabrous. Var. *sylvestris*, (wild apple) leaves ovate serrate: fruit small, austere.

cydo'nia, (quince. E. w. J. ♄.) flowers solitary: fruit tomentose: leaves ovate, entire.

Remark. The varieties into which the above species have been extended by culture, are very numerous.

19—2. QUERCUS. 50. 99.

alba, (white oak. O. M. ♄.) leaves oblong, sinuate-pinnatifid, pubescent beneath; lobes obtuse, entire, narrowed at their bases, particularly on full grown trees: fruit peduncled: calyx somewhat bowl-form, tubercled flattened at the base. acorn ovate. The most useful timber-tree in America. 70—80 f. *S.*

12—13. RANUNCULUS. 26. 61.

Leaves divided.

aborti'vus, (O. y. M. ♃.) glabrous: stem striate, naked below: radical leaves heart-reniform, obtusely crenate; cauline ones petioled, ternate, angled: upper ones sessile: branches about three-flowered. 9—15 i. *S.*

re'pens, (O. y. M. ♃.) pubescent: leaves ternate, 3-cleft, gashed: creeping shoots sent off in the summer: peduncles furrowed: calyx spreading. Damp.

a'cris, (crowfoot, butter cup. O. y. M. ♃.) hairs close-pressed: leaves 3-parted, many-cleft; upper ones linear: peduncles terete: calyx spreading. 1—2 f.

14—2. RAPHANUS. 39. 63.

Exotic.

sati'vus, (garden raddish. w. J. ⊙.) leaves lyrate: silique terete, torose, 2 celled. There are several varieties of this species—one has a fusiform, another a globose, another a black root.

9—3. RHEUM. 12. 28.

Exotic.

palma'tum, (rhubarb. J. ♃.) leaves palmate, acuminate. From China.

rhapon''ticum, (pie rhubarb. w. J. ♃.) leaves heart-ovate, obtuse and acute, smooth: veins sub-pilose beneath, the sinus at the base dilated: petioles furrowed on the upper side, rounded at the edge. Radical leaves very large. 2—4 f.

10—1. RHODODENDRON. 18. 50.

max''imum, (wild rosebay. E. r. Ju. ♄.) leaves oblong, glabrous, paler beneath: umbels terminal, dense: corollas somewhat bell-form. 4—20 f.

Exotic.

pon''ticum, (rose bay. p. ♄.) leaves oblong, glabrous, both sides coloured alike: corymbs terminal: corolla bell-wheel-form: petals lanceolate.

5—3. RHUS. 43. 94.

glabrum, (sleek sumach. O. g. r. Ju. ♄.) branches, petioles and leaves glabrous: leaves pinnate, many paired; leafets lance-oblong, serrate, whitish beneath: fruit silky. The leaves of both the species are used for tanning morocco leather. Berries red and sour. 6—12 f.

Exotic.

cot''inus, (false fringe-tree, aaron's beard. p-g. Ju. ♄.) leaves simple, obovate and ovate: panicle racemes plumose. A small tree, with very minute flowers supported on capillary, downy, or hairy peduncles. Indigenous to Siberia, Austria and Lombardy.

5—1. RIBES. 36. 85.

Currant-like. Flowers racemed.

flo'ridum, (wild black currant. O. M. ♄.) unarmed: leaves punctate both sides: racemes pendant: calyx cylindric: bracts longer than the pedicels. 3—4 f. *S.*

Gooseberry-like. Peduncles mostly few-flowered, rarely sub-racemed.

triflo'rum, (wild gooseberry. A. g. M. ♄.) spine sub-axillary: leaves glabrous, 3—5 lobed, gash toothed: peduncles sub 3-flowered, with the pedicels elongated: bracts very short: petals spatulate, undulate: style hirsute, half 2 or 3-cleft, exsert: berry glabrous. Berries pale-red. 3—4 f. *S.*

Exotic.

rubrum, (currant. g. M. ♄.) unarmed: racemes glabrous, nodding: corolla flat: petals obcordate: leaves obtusely 5-lobed: stem erect. Berries red. 2—4 f.

nigrum, (black currant. g. M. ♄.) unarmed: leaves punctate beneath: racemes lax: flowers bell-form: bracts shorter than the pidicels. Berries black. 3 5—f.

grossula'ria, (english gooseberry. g. M. ♄.) branches prickly: petioles hairy; bracts 2-leaved: berry glabrous or hirsute. 2—4 f.

19—15. RICINUS. 38. 96.

Exotic.

commu'nis, (castor-oil plant, palma christi. ⊙.) leaves peltate, palmate: lobes lanceolate, serrate: stem with hoary mealiness. 4—6 f.

16—10. ROBINIA. 32. 93.

pseudo-aca'cia, (locust tree, false acacia. A. w. M. ♄.) leaves pinnate, with a terminal leafet: stipules thorny, or a thorn: racemes pendant: teeth of the calyx unawned: legumes smooth. 30—40 f. S.

11—13. ROSA. 35. 93.

parviflo'ra, (wild rose. O. r. w. ♄.) germs depressed-globose; germs and peduncles hispid: petioles pubescent, sub-aculeate: stem glabrous: prickles stipular, straight: leafets lance-oval, simply serrate, glabrous: flowers somewhat in pairs. Very variable. 1—3 f. S.

rubigino'sa, (sweet-briar. E. r. J. ♄.) germ ovate: peduncles and petioles glandular-hispid: petioles somewhat prickly: stem glabrous: prickles scattered, hooked, slender: leafets (5 or 7,) ovate, serrate, sub-glandular beneath. 3—4 f. S.

Exotic.

cani'na, (dog rose. ♄.) germs ovate: germs and peduncles glabrous: stem and petioles prickly: leaves ovate, glabrous.

gal''lica, (french rose, common rose. r. J. ♄.) germs ovate: germs and peduncles hispid: stem and petioles hispid-prickly. Sometimes the colours are variegated.

damasce'na, (damask rose. w. r. J. ♄.) calyx half-pinnate: germ ovate, turgid (thickened near its top,) bristly: stem and petioles prickly: leafets ovate, pointed, downy beneath.

musco'sa, (moss rose. r. Au. ♄.) germs ovate: calyx, peduncles, petioles and branches hispid, glandular-viscid, (mossy-like:) spines of the branches scattered, straight.

moscha'ta, (musk rose. ♄.) germs ovate: germs and peduncles villose: stem and petioles prickly: leafets oblong, acuminate, glabrous: panicle many-flowered.

burgundi'aca, (burgundy rose. ♄.) germs sub-globose: germs and peduncles hispid: leafets ovate, pubescent beneath: corolla small, full, fleshy-white; disk obscure. Var. *provincialis*, has scattered reflexed prickles on the branches, and glandular serratures.

semperflo'rens, (monthly rose. ♄.) germs ovate-oblong, tapering to both ends: germs and peduncles hispid: stem prickly: flowers in erect corymbs. Resembles damascena.

alba, (white rose. w. J. ♄.) germs ovate, glabrous or hispid: stem and petioles prickly: leafets ovate, villose beneath.

centifo'lia, (hundred-leaved rose. r. ♄.) germs ovate: germs and peduncles hispid: stem hispid, prickly: leaves pubescent beneath: petioles unarmed.

cinnamo'mea, (cinnamon rose. ♄.) germs globose: germs and peduncles glabrous: stem with stipular prickles: petioles somewhat unarmed: leafets oblong. R. majalis. Stem brown-cinnamon colour.

multiflo'ra, (japan rose. ♄.) germs ovate: germs and peduncles unarmed, villose: stem and petioles prickly. Branches generally purple: leafets ovate: flowers small, panicled.

2—1. ROSMARINUS. 42. 39.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (rosemary. ♄.) leaves, some green both sides; others whitish bebeath, linear: margins revolute.

4—1. RUBIA. 47. 57.

Exotic.

tincto'ria, (madder.) leaves lanceolate, about in sixes: stem prickly, climbing. Var. *sylvestris*, lower leaves in sixes, upper ones in fours or in pairs.

11—13. RUBUS. 35. 92.

ide'us, (garden raspberry. E. w. M. ♄.) leaves quinate-pinnate and ternate: leafets rhomb-ovate, acuminate, downy beneath: petioles channelled: stem prickly, hispid flowers sub-panicled. Var. *americanus*, branchlets nearly glabrous: stem and petioles terete: leaves all ternate: pedicels somewhat prickly. 4—6 f. *S.*

villo'sus, (high blackberry. O. w. J. ♄.) pubescent, hispid and prickly: leaves digitate, in threes or fives; leafets ovate, acuminate, serrate, hairy both sides: stem and petioles prickly: calyx short, acuminate: racemes naked: petals lance-ovate. 4—6 f. *S.*

strigo'sus, (red raspberry. O. w. J. ♄.) unarmed, rigidly hisped: leafets 3, or pinnate-quinate, oval, at the base obtuse, acuminate, marked with lines, and white-downy beneath, terminal one often sub-cordate. Fruit red, sweet.

occidenta'lis, (black raspberry. O. w. g. ♄.) branches and petioles glaucous and prickly: leaves ternate, oval, acuminate, sub lobate and doubly serrate, white-downy beneath: petioles terete: prickles recurved. 4—8 f. *S.*

trivia'lis, (creeping blackberry, dew-berry. O. w. J. ♄.) sarmentose-procumbent: petioles and peduncles aculeate-hispid, with the prickles recurved: stipules subulate: leaves ternate or quinate, oblong-oval, acute, unequally serrate, sub-pubescent: pedicels solitary, elongated. Var. *flagellaris*, has orbicular petals, and small smooth leaves. *S.*

odora'tus, (flowering raspberry. E. r. J. ♄.) unarmed, erect, viscid-hispid: leaves simple, acutely 3 or 5-lobed: corymbs terminal, spreading. Flowers large: berries rather dry and thin. 3—6 f. *S.*

17—3. RUDBECKIA. 49. 55.

lacinia'ta, (cone-flower, cone-disk sunflower. O. y. Au. ♃.) lower leaves pinnate; leafets 3-lobed; upper ones ovate: egret crenate: stem glabrous. Damp. 5—10 f. *S.*

6—3. RUMEX. 12. 28.

cri'spus, (dock. O. Ju. ♃.) valves of the calyx ovate, entire, all bearing grain-like appendages on their backs: leaves lanceolate, undulate, acute. 2—3 f.

acetosel''lus, (field sorrel. O. g. p. M. ♃.) valves without grains: leaves lance-hastate: flowers dioecious. 6—12 i.

Exotic.

patien''tia, (garden dock, patience. ♃.) valves entire, one of them bearing a grain-like appendage: leaves lance-ovate. Naturalized.

10—1. RUTA. 26. 81.

Exotic.

grave'olens, (rue.) leaves more than decompound; leafets oblong, terminal ones obovate: petals entire.

3—2. SACCHARUM. 4. 10.

Exotic.

officina'rum, (sugar cane.) flowers panicled, in pairs, one sessile and one pedicelled: corolla 1-valved, awnless. From the East Indies.

19—12. SAGITTARIA. 5. 13.

sagittifo'lia, (arrow-head. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves lanceolate-acute, sagittate: lobes lanceolate, acute, straight. Var. *latifolia*, leaves ovate, sub-acute, sagittate: lobes ovate, slightly acuminate, straight. Var. *major*, leaves large, abruptly acute: scape sub-ramose. 1—2 f. *S.*

1—1. SALICORNIA. 12. 29.

herba'cea, (samphire, glasswort. L. Au. ☉.) herbaceous, spreading: joints compressed at the apex, emarginate-bifid. Var. *virginica*, has the branches undivided, and the jointed spikes very long. The fructification is very obscure; but it may be known by its leafless nearly cylindric jointed branches. It grows in salt marshes along the sea-board. Onondaga salt springs. 12—18 i. *S.*

20—2. SALIX. 50. 99.

babylo'nica, (weeping willow. E. M. ♄.) branchlets pendant: leaves lanceolate, acuminate, serrate, glabrous, upper and lower sides of different colours: stipules roundish, contracted: aments flower at leafing time: germs sessile, ovate, glabrous. Supposed to be the willow on which the Israelites hung their harps, when captive in Babylon. Introduced. *S.*

2—1. SALVIA. 42. 39.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (sage. b. J. ♃. or ♄.) leaves lance-ovate, crenulate: whorls few-flowered: calyx mucronate.

scla'ra, (clarry. ♂.) leaves rugose, cordate, oblong, villose, serrate: floral bracts longer than the calyx, concave, acuminate.

5—3. SAMBUCUS. 43. 58.

canaden''sis, (black-berried elder. O. w. J. ♄.) branchlets and petioles glabrous: leafets about in 4 pairs, oblong-oval, glabrous, shining, acuminate: cyme lax, divided into about 5 parts. 8—15 f.

pubes''cens, (red-berried elder. O. w. M. ♄.) bark warty: leafets in 2 pairs, lance-oval, pubescent beneath: flowers raceme-panicled, or in a crowded bunch. 6—12 f.

13—1. SANGUINARIA. 27. 62.

canaden''sis, (blood-root. O. w. Ap. ♃.) leaves sub-reniform, sinuate-lobed: scape 1-flowered. A variety, *stenopetala*, has linear petals. 6—10 i. *S.*

4—2. SANGUISORBA. 54. 92.

canaden''sis, (burnet saxifrage. w. Ju. ♃.) flowers in a long cylindric spike: stamens several times longer than the corollas. The leaves resemble the burnet. 3—5 f. *S.*

10—2. SAPONARIA. 22. 82.

Exotic.

officina'lis, (soapwort, bouncing bet. w. J. ♃.) calyx cylindric: leaves lance-ovate, opposite, sub-connate, entire. Probably introduced, and naturalized. 10—18 i.

12—1. SARRACENIA. 54. 62.

purpu'rea, (side-saddle. O. p. J. ♃.) leaves radical, short, gibbose-inflated or cup-form, contracted at the mouth, having a broad arched lateral wing; the contracted part of the base hardly as long as the inflated part. Scape with a single, large nodding flower. In marshes. 1—2 f. *S.*

13—1. SATUREJA. 42. 39.

horten''sis, (summer savory. b-w. Ju. ☉.) peduncles axillary, somewhat in a cyme: leaves lanceolate, entire: stem brachiate.

7—4. SAURURUS. 2. 6.

cer''nuus, (lizard's tail, breast weed. W. Au. ♃.) stem angular, sulcate: leaves alternate, heart-oblong, acuminate. Rare in New-York east of Cayuga Lake—abundant west of it. 1—2 f.

10—2. SAXIFRAGA. 13. 84.

Leaves radical, undivided: stem nearly naked.

virginien''sis, (rock saxifrage. O. w. M. ♃.) minutely pubescent: leaves oval obtuse, crenate, decurrent into the petiole: flowers sub-sessile on the dichotomous branches of an almost leafless scape. 1—15 i. *S.*

Exotic.

sarmento'sa, (beef-steak, creeping saxifrage. w. Au. ♃.) leaves roundish, toothed, hairy: sending off creeping shoots: 2 petals in each flower elongated.

6—1. SCILLA. 10. 14.

Exotic.

marit''ima, (squill. w.) scape long, naked, many-flowered: bracts bent back. Root bulbous.

13—1. SCUTELLARIA. 42. 39.

lateriflo'ra, (mad-dog scull-cap, hood-wort. O. b. Ju. ♃.) branching, glabrous: leaves long-petioled, ovate, toothed; cauline ones sub-cordate: racemes lateral, leafy. Damp. 1—2 f. *S.*

galericula'ta, (scull-cap. O. b. J. ♃.) branching: leaves sub-sessile, lance-ovate, sub-cordate at the base, crenate, a little white-downy beneath: flowers axillary, solitary or in pairs. Flowers large. Damp. 12—18 i.

3—2. SECALE. 4. 10.

cerea'le, (rye. J. ♂.) glumes and bristles scabrous-ciliate: corolla smooth. Introduced.

10—5. SEDUM. 13. 83.

terna'tum, (false ice-plant. W. w. J. ♃.) small, creeping: leaves flat, round-spatulate, ternate: flowers somewhat 3-spiked. Varies into the eighth class. Cultivated. *S.*

Exotic.

tele'phium, (orpine, live-forever. r. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves flattish, tooth-serrate, thickly scattered: corymb leafy: stem erect.

anacamp''seros, (stone-crop. ♃.) leaves wedge-form, entire, sub-sessile: stem decumbent: flowers corymbed.

12—13. SEMPERVIVUM. 13. 83.

Exotic.

tecto'rum, (houseleek. Au. ♃.) leaves ciliate: bulbs spreading: nectaries wedge-form, crenulate.

arbo'reum, (tree houseleek.) stem woody, smooth, branching: leaves wedge-form, glabrous, with soft spreading hairs.

15—12. SIDA. 37. 74.

abu'tilon, (indian mallows. E. y. Ju. ☉.) leaves round-cordate, acuminate, toothed, tomentose: peduncles solitary, shorter than the petioles: capsules 2-awned truncate. 4—6 f. *S.*

14—2. SINAPIS. 39. 63.

Exotic.

nigra, (common mustard. y. J. ☉.) silique glabrous, 4-angled, close-pressed to the stem: leaves at the top lance-linear, entire, smooth. Naturalized.

15—3. SISYRINCHIUM. 6. 18.

anceps, (blue-eyed grass. O. b. J. ♃.) scape (or culm) simple, 2-edged or 2-winged: glume-like spatha of 2 unequal valves, extending above the flower: petals mucronate. 6—12 i. *S.*

5—1. SOLANUM. 28. 41.

dulcama'ra, (bittersweet. E. p-b. Ju. ♄.) stem unarmed, woody, climbing; lower leaves mostly cordate, glabrous; upper ones mostly guitar-hastate, few-flowered; corymbs opposite to leaves. This is the true bittersweet; but the Celastrus scandens is wrongly called so by some. Damp.

nigrum, (deadly nightshade. O. w. p. b. J. ☉.) stem unarmed, erectish or erect; branches angled, dentate; leaves ovate, repand, glabrous: racemes 2-ranked, nodding. 1—2 f. *S.*

Exotic.

tubero'sum, (potato. b. w. Ju. ♄.) stem wing-angled, unarmed: leaves interruptedly pinnate; leafets entire: flowers sub-corymbed: roots knobbed-tuberous. Cultivated.

lycoper''sicum, (love apple, tomatoes. y. S. ☉.) stem unarmed: leaves pinnatifid, gashed: racemes 2-parted, leafless: fruit glabrous, torulose.

melonge'na, (egg-plant. J. ☉.) stem unarmed: leaves ovate, tomentose: peduncles pendant, incrassate: calyx unarmed.

pseudo-cap''sicum, (jerusalem cherry. ♄.) stem woody: leaves lanceolate, repand: umbels sessile.

17—2. SOLIDAGO. 49. 55.

1. *Flowers one-sided. Leaves with three combined nerves.*

canaden''sis, (canadian golden-rod. O. y. Ju. ♃.) stem downy: leaves lanceolate, serrate, rough: racemes copious panicled, recurved: rays hardly longer than the disk: stem angular: leaves sessile, three inches long, sometimes nearly entire. 2—5 f. *S.*

gigan″tea, (giant golden-rod. O. y. Au. ♃.) stem erect, glabrous: leaves lanceolate, smooth, serrate, rough-edged, obscurely 3-nerved: racemes panicled: peduncles rough-haired: rays short. 4—7 f. *S.*

laterіflo′ra, (side-flowered golden-rod. y. Au. ♃.) stem erect, a little hairy: leaves lanceolate, slightly 3-nerved, glabrous, rough-edged; lower ones sub-serrate: racemes panicled, a little recurved, sub-secund: flowers large, the rays being much longer than the calyx: stem striated, often purplish, pinnatifid, with numerous lateral flowering branches. 2—3 f. *S.*

2. *Racemes or flowers one-sided. Leaves veiny.*

altis″sima, (variable golden-rod. O. y. Au. ♃.) stem erect, rough-haired: leaves lanceolate; lower ones deeply serrate, scabrous, rugose. The panicled racemes are very numerous and spread every way, so as to bring the one-sided flowers upwards: rays half as long again as the calyx. But this species is so variable, that students generally endeavour to make several species of it. The serratures of the leaves are equal and unequal; it is hairy or villose; and sometimes the racemes diverge but little. 3—6 f. *S.*

pat″ula, (spread golden-rod. O. y. S. ♃.) stem erect, glabrous: leaves oval, serrate, glabrous; radical ones oblong-spatulate: racemes panicled, spreading: peduncles pubescent. Stem wand-like, angular and striate; stem-leaves sessile, about an inch long, pointed; the radical ones resemble those of the ox-eyed daisy: racemes about an inch long: flowers rather large. 2 f. *S.*

3. *Racemes erect.*

bi′color, (white golden-rod. O. w. Au. ♃.) stem hairy: leaves oval, hairy; lower ones serrate; those on the flower branches entire, numerous and small: scales of the calyx obtuse. Racemes are short and compact: rays white, somewhat numerous and shortish; disk-florets rather numerous. 2—4 f. *S.*

3—2. SORGHUM. 4. 10.

Exotic.

sacchara′tum, (broom corn. y-g. Au. ⊙.) panicle somewhat whorled, spreading: seeds oval: glumes covered with permanent softish hairs: leaves linear. From the East Indies. 6—8 f.

20—5. SPINACIA. 12. 28.

Exotic.

olera′cea, (spinach. J. ⊙.) fruit sessile, prickly or unarmed: leaves hastate-sagittate: stem branched. In habit resembles the Chenopodium, album. 1—2 f.

11—5. SPIRÆA. 36. 92.

Stem more or less woody.

salicifo′lia, (meadow-sweet, willow hard-hack. O. r. w. J. ♄.) leaves lance-ovate or obovate, serrate, glabrous: flowers in panicled spreading racemes. Var. *alba*, has white petals, and generally the twigs are reddish. The small branches are generally killed by frost in the winter, as also of the next species. 2—4 f. *S.*

tomento′sa, (steeple bush, purple hard-hack, meadow-sweet. O. r. Ju. ♄.) leaves lanceolate, unequally serrate, downy beneath: racemes in a crowded, sub-panicled, spike. 2—3 f. *S.*

hypericifo′lia, (john's-wort hard-hack. w. M. ♄.) leaves obovate, entire or toothed at the apex: umbels sessile. Cultivated. 3 f.

opulifo′lia, (nine-bark, snow-ball hard-hack. E. w. J. ♄.) leaves sub-ovate. lobed, doubly toothed or crenate, glabrous: corymbs terminal, crowded: capsules inflated: flowers trigynious. Wet. 3—5 f. *S.*

Exotic.

ulma′ria, (queen of the meadow. w. Au. ♃.) leaves pinnate, downy beneath; the terminal leafet larger, 3-lobed; the lateral ones undivided: flowers in a proliferous corymb. Stem herbaceous.

13—1. STACHYS. 42. 39.

as″pera, (hedge nettle, clown heal. O. w-p. Ju. ♃.) stem erect, hispid backwards: leaves sub-petioled, lanceolate, acutely serrate, very glabrous: whorls abour 6-flowered: calyx with spreading spines. Var. *tenuifolia*, leaves very thin and slender.

5—3. STAPHYLEA. 23. 95.

trifo'lia, (bladder nut. E. y-w. M. ♄.) leaves in threes: racemes pendant: petals ciliate below. When in flower, if the germ be cut transversely and examined, it will appear 2 or 3-celled, and will contain the rudiments of 15 to 20 seeds. But when the fruit is ripe, it consists of 2 or 3 inflated, adnate, sub-membranous capsules, each containing 1 to 3 hard small nuts. 6—12 f. *S.*

16—10. STROPHOSTYLES. 32. 93.

angulo'sa, (E. p. Au. ☉.) leaves ternate; leafets angular, 2—3-lobed: peduncles longer than the leaves: flowers capitate. *S.*

hel''vola, (r.) prostrate, sometimes twining: leaves ternate, deltoid-oblong: flowers capitate: banner short: wings large, expanded. *S.*

5—1. SYMPHITUM 41. 42.

Exotic.

officina'le, (comfrey. y-w. J. ♃.) leaves ovate-sub-lanceolate, decurrent, rugose. Naturalized. 2—4 f.

2—1. SYRINGA. 48. 37.

vulga'ris, (lilac. b-p. w. M. ♄.) leaves cordate: flowers in a thyrse.

per''sica, (persian lilac. b. M. ♄.) leaves lanceolate, entire and pinnatifid.

17—2. TAGETES. 49. 55.

Exotic.

erec''ta, (african marygold. y. Ju. ☉.) leaves pinnate; leafets lanceolate, ciliate-serrate: peduncles 1-flowered, incrassate, sub-inflated: calyx angled.

17—2. TANACETUM. 49. 55.

Exotic.

vulga're, (tansey. y. Ju. ♃.) leaves doubly pinnate, gash-serrate. Naturalized. Var. *crispum*, (double tansey,) leaves crisped and dense.

13—1. TEUCRIUM. 42. 89.

canaden''se, (wood-sage, germander. O. r. Ju. ♃.) pubescent: leaves lance-ovate, serrate, petioled: stem erect: spikes whorled, crowded: bracts longer than the calyx. Var. *virginicum*, upper leaves sub-sessile: bracts about the length of the calyx. 1—3 f. S.

12—13. THALICTRUM. 26. 61.

dio'icum, (meadow rue. O. w-r. M. ♃.) flowers dioecius: filaments filiform: leaves about 3-ternate; leafets roundish, cordate, obtusely lobed, glabrous: peduncles axillary, shorter than the leaves. 1—2 f. *S.*

12—1. THEA. 54. 71.

Exotic.

bohe'a, (bohea tea. M. ♄.) flowers 6-petalled: leaves oblong-oval, rugose. From China and Japan.

vir''idis, (green tea. ♄.) flowers 9-petalled: leaves very long-oval. J. C. Lettson says this is only a variety of the bohea.

14—1. THLASPI. 39. 63.

bursa-pasto'ris, (shepherd's purse. O. w. M. ☉.) hirsute: silicles deltoid-obcordate: radical leaves pinnatifid. *S.*

13—1. THYMUS. 42. 39.

Exotic.

vulga'ris, (thyme. b-p. J. ♃. ♄.) erect: leaves ovate and linear, revolute: flowers in a whorled spike.

12—1. TILIA. 37. 79.

gla'bra, (bass-wood, lime-tree. O. y-w. Ju. ♄.) leaves round-cordate, abruptly acuminate, sharply serrate, sub-coriaceous, glabrous: petals truncate at the apex, crenate: style about equalling the petals: nut ovate. Large tree: wood soft and white. Leaves often truncate at the base. *S.*

6—1. TRADESCANTIA. 6. 13.

virgin″ica, (spider-wort. b. p. M. ♃.) erect, branching: leaves lanceolate elongated, glabrous: flowers sessile: umbel compact, pubescent. Cultivated. 1—2 f.

17—1. TRAGOPOGON. 49. 53.

Exotic.

porrifo′lium, (vegetable oyster, goat-beard, salsify. p. Ju. ♂.) calyx longer than the rays of the corolla: the corollets very narrow, truncate: peduncles incrassate.

13—1. TRICHOSTEMA. 42. 39.

dichot″oma, (blue curls. b. Au. ☉.) leaves lance-ovate: branches flower-bearing, 2-forked: stamens very long, blue, curved. Var. *linearis*, somewhat pubescent: leaves linear. 6—12 i. *S.*

7—1. TRIENTALIS. 20. 34.

america′na, (chick wintergreen. O. w. Ju. ♃.) leaves lanceolate, serrulate, acuminate: petals acuminate. 3—6 i.

16—10. TRIFOLIUM. 32. 93.

re′pens, (white clover. O. w. M. ♃.) creeping: leafets ovate-oblong, emarginate, serrulate: flowers in umbelled heads: teeth of the calyx sub-equal: legumes 4-seeded. *S.*

praten″se, (red clover. O. r. M. ♃.) ascending, smoothish, leafets ovate, subentire: stipules awned: spikes dense-ovate: lower tooth of the calyx shorter than the tube of the corolla, and longer than the other teeth. 2—3 f. *S.*

6—3. TRILLIUM. 11. 12.

pen″dulum, (nodding wake-robbin. w. M. ♃.) peduncles erect, with the flower a little nodding: petals ovate, shortly acuminate, spreading, flat, longer than the calyx: leaves rhomboid-acuminate, sessile.

erec″tum, (false wake-robbin. O. p. w-y. M. ♃.) peduncles erect or erectish, with the flowers a little nodding: petals ovate, acuminate, spreading, equalling the calyx: leaves rhomboid, acuminate, sessile. Var. *atropurpureum*, petals large, dark purple. Var. *album*, petals smaller, white; germ red. Var. *flavum*, petals yellow: both petals and calyx leaves longer and narrower. 12 to 18 inches high. leaves often 3 to 4 inches broad. Peduncles about 3 inches long. 9—16 i. *S.*

3—2. TRITICUM. 4. 10.

Exotic.

hyber″num, (winter wheat. J. ♂.) calyx-glume 4-flowered, tumid, even, imbricate, abrupt, with a short compressed point: stipule jagged. corollas of the upper florets somewhat bearded. There are several varieties of this species which are induced by culture.

8—1. TROPÆOLUM. 23. 73.

Exotic.

ma′jus, (nasturtion, indian cress. y. & r. Ju. ☉. & ♃.) leaves peltate, sub-repand: petals obtuse, some of them fringed.

6—1. TULIPA. 10. 14.

Exotic.

suave′olens, (sweet tulip. M. ♃.) small stem 1-flowered, pubescent: flower erect: petals obtuse, glabrous: leaves lance-ovate.

gesneria′na, (common tulip. M. ♃.) stem 1-flowered, glabrous: flower various-coloured, erect: petals obtuse, glabrous: leaves lance-ovate.

17—2. TUSSILAGO. 49. 55.

far′fara, (colt's foot. y. Ap. ♃.) scape single-flowered, scaly: leaves cordate, angular, toothed downy beneath. The flower appears long before the leaves. 4—6 i.

19—3. TYPHA. 3. 8.

latifo'lia, (cat-tail, reed-mace. O. Ju. ♃.) leaves linear, flat, slightly convex beneath: staminate and pistillate aments close together. Wet. 4—6 f. *S.*

5—2. ULMUS. 53. 99.

america'na, (elm, white-elm. O. g-p. Ap. ♄.) branches smooth; leaves oblique at the base, having acuminate serratures a little hooking: flowers pedicelled; fruit fringed with dense down. Var. *pendula*, has hanging branches and smoothish leaves. 40—70 f. *S.*

21—4. ULVA. 57. 2.

lin''za, frond lance-linear; margin undulate-crisped. About an inch broad, tapering to the base, green. Sea-shore.

5—2. URASPERMUM. 45. 60.

clayto'ni, (sweet cicely. O. J. ♃.) leaves compound, hairy; leafets gash-toothed: umbels axillary and terminal, about 5-rayed: style as long as the villose germ, filiform, deflected. 2 f.

21—6. UREDO. 58. 1.

linea'ris, (yellow-grain-rust. J. ☉.) linear, very long, stained-yellow, at length but obscurely coloured. On the culms and leaves of barley, oats, rye, wheat, &c.

19—4. URTICA. 53. 99.

dio'ica, (common-nettle. O. J. ♃.) leaves opposite, cordate, lance-ovate, coarsely serrate: flowers diœcious: spikes panicled, glomerate, in pairs, longer than the petioles. 2—3 f. *S.*

21—5. USNEA. 57. 2.

plica'ta, frond pendulous, smooth, pale: branches lax, very branching, subfibrous; the extreme ones capillary: receptacles flat, broad, ciliate; the ciliæ very slender and long. On trunks and branches of trees: most common on dry dead limbs of evergreens, from which it often hangs in long green locks.

6—1. UVULARIA. 11. 14.

perfolia'ta, (bell-wort. O. y. M. ♃.) leaves perfoliate, oval, obtuse, (lance-linear or oval-oblong in the young state:) corolla bell-liliaceous, scabrous or granular within: anthers cuspidate. 8—12 i.

10—1. VACCINIUM. 18. 51.

resino'sum, (black whortleberry. O. p. M. ♄.) leaves slender, petioled, oblong-oval, mostly obtuse, entire, bedewed with resinous specks beneath: racemes lateral, 1-sided: pedicels short, somewhat bracted: corolla ovate-conic, 5-cornered. Berries black. One variety has a yellowish-green, and another has a reddish-yellow corolla. 1—4 f. *S.*

5—1. VERBASCUM. 28. 41.

thapsus, (mullein. O. y. J. ♂.) leaves decurrent, downy both sides: stem generally simple, though sometimes branched above: flowers in cylindric spike. 3—6 f. *S.*

blatta'ria, (moth mullein, sleek mullein. w-y. J. ♄.) leaves glabrous, tooth-serrate; lower ones oblong-obovate; upper ones heart-ovate, clasping: pedicels 1-flowered, in a terminal panicle-raceme. Var. *alba*, leaves toothed: flowers white. Var. *lutea*, leaves doubly serrate: flowers yellow. 2—3 f. *S.*

13—1. VERBENA. 42. 39.

hasta'ta, (vervain, simpler's joy. O. p-w. Ju. ♃.) erect, tall: leaves lanceolate, acuminate, gash-serrate; lower ones sometimes gash-hastate: spikes linear, panicled, sub-imbricate. Var. *pinnatifida*, has the leaves gash-pinnatifid, coarsely-toothed. Var. *oblongifolia*, leaves lance-oblong, deeply-serrate, acute: spikes filiform, panicled. 2—5 f. *S.*

2—1. VERONICA. 40. 35.

officina'lis, (speedwell. b. M. ♃.) spikes lateral, peduncled: leaves opposite, obovate, hairy: stem procumbent, rough-haired. 9—12 i. *S.*

anagal''lis, (brook pimpernel. O. b. J. ♃.) racemes opposite, long, loose: leaves lanceolate, serrate: stem erect. 12—18 i. *S.*

beccabun″ga, (brook-lime. b. J. ♃.) racemes opposite: leaves oval, obtuse, sub-serrate, glabrous: stem procumbent, rooting at the base. Probably a variety of the last. 9—18 i. *S.*

5—3. VIBURNUM. 43. 58.

lenta′go, (sheep-berry. O. w. J. ♄.) glabrous: leaves broad-ovate, acuminate, hook-serrate: petioles margined, undulate: cymes sessile. The branches when full grown often form a fastigiate top. Berries black, oval, and pleasant-tasted; somewhat mucilaginous. 8—15 f. *S.*

acerifo′lium, (maple guelder-rose, dockmackie. O. w. J. ♄.) leaves heart-ovate or 3-lobed, acuminate, sharp-serrate, pubescent beneath: cymes long-peduncled. Stem very flexible: leaves broad and sub-membranaceous. 4—6 f. *S.* Leaves applied to inflamed tumours by the indians.

Exotic.

op″ulus, (guelder rose, snow-ball. w. J. ♄.) leaves 3-lobed, sharp-toothed: petioles glandular, smooth: flowers in compact cymes, surrounded with radiating florets. Var. *roseum*, has the whole cyme made up of radiating florets.

tinus, (laurestine. r-w. ♄.) leaves ovate, entire, with tufts of hair in the axils of the veins beneath: flowers in smooth cymes.

16—10. VICIA. 32. 93.

Exotic.

faba, (garden bean, windsor bean. w. & black. J. ⊙.) stem many flowered, erect, strong: legumes ascending, tumid, coriaceous: leafets oval, acute, entire: stipules sagittate, toothed at the base. From Persia.

5—1. VINCA. 30. 47.

Exotic.

minor, (periwinkle. b. Ap. ♄.) stem procumbent: leaves lance-oval, smooth at the edges: flowers peduncled: teeth of the calyx lanceolate.

5—1. VIOLA. 29. 80.

1. *Stemless, or with a subterranean stem.*

(Leaves more or less reniform, always cordate, younger cucullate: proper colour of the corolla violet.)

cuculla′ta, (O. p. b. M. ♃.) glabrous: leaves cordate, somewhat acuminate, crenate-dentate: autumnal ones largest, very exactly reniform: peduncle somewhat 4-sided, longer than the leaves; divisions of the calyx subulate, acuminate, emarginate behind or very entire: petals (as in many American species) oblique, veiny, very entire, white at the base, upper one generally naked, glabrous, lateral ones bearded, and with the upper one, marked with a few blue lines. Var. *papilionacea*, petioles and peduncles longer: leaves sub-lance-ovate: beards of the lateral petals often yellow. Var. *tetragona*, peduncle strong, exactly 4-sided: petals azure colour, veinless. Var. *villosa*, leaves, petals and peduncles villose. 4—8 i. *S.*

palma′ta, (O. p-b. M. ♃.) mostly villose: leaves heart-reniform, palmate-5—7-lobed; lobes polymorphous, often narrow and gashed, middle one always larger; sometimes villose both sides, sometimes only beneath, often glabrous, all of them very often purple beneath; the first spring ones are ovate, entire; petioles sub-emarginate: peduncle somewhat 4-sided, longer than the leaves: divisions of the calyx lance-ovate, ciliate, very entire behind: petals all very entire, veiny, and white at the base, upper ones narrower, smaller, sometimes villose at the base, yet often naked, glabrous; lateral ones densely bearded, and with the upper one, marked with a few blue lines. One variety has white flowers. 3—6 i. *S.*

(Leaves oblong or ovate, never reniform: younger ones cucullate.)

sagitta′ta, (E. b-p. Ap. ♃.) glabrous: leaves ciliate, oblong, not acute, sagittate-cordate, dentate, gashed at the base, (or furnished with elongated divaricate teeth): peduncle somewhat 4-sided, longer than the leaves: divisions of the calyx lanceolate, acuminate, emarginate behind: petals all very entire, veiny, white at the base; upper one generally naked, glabrous; lateral ones densely bearded, and with the upper one marked with a few blue lines: spur elongated behind. A variety has the leaves more or less villose. Dry.

(Leaves ovate or lanceolate: corolla white, with the lateral petals narrower.)

amœ'na, (E. w. Ap. ♃.) glabrous: leaves ovate sub-acuminate, crenate, sometimes sub-villose above; petioles long, spotted with red: peduncle somewhat 4-sided, equalling or exceeding the length of the leaves, spotted: divisions of the calyx lanceolate: petals all very entire, green at the base; lateral ones sometimes with the base pubescent, and with the upper one marked with a few blue lines. Moist woods. Flowers odorous.

(Stemless.)

rotundifo'lia, (O. M. y. ♃.) glabrous: leaves thickish, appressed to the earth, broad-ovate or obicular, cordate, crenate: nerves pubescent beneath: sinus closed: peduncle somewhat 4-sided, as long as the leaves: divisions of the calyx oblong, obtuse: petals sometimes emarginate: upper ones small: lateral ones somewhat bearded, and with the upper one, marked with a few yellowish-brown lines: spur very short. Woods. 1—3 i.

peda'ta, (O. M. p-b. ♃.) glabrous: leaves sometimes ciliate, variously-divided, very often pedately-9-parted; divisions linear and obtusely lanceolate, generally 3-lobed at the apex, often simply lanceolate, with the apex, 5—7-lobed: peduncle somewhat 4-sided: divisions of the calyx lanceolate, acute-ciliate, emarginate behind: petals all white at the base, veinless, very entire, very glabrous, naked; upper one truncate, and marked with a few very blue lines, sometimes obsolete. Var. *velutina*, has the two lower petals of a very deep violet colour, and appears like velvet. Var. *alba*, has white flowers. Dry. 3—4 i. *S.*

2. *Caulescent.*

pubes''cens, (O. y. ♃.) villose-pubescent: stem simple, erect, terete, leafless below: leaves broad-ovate, cordate, dentate; petioles short: stipules large, ovate, dentate: peduncles 4-sided, shorter than the leaves: bracts subulate, minute: divisions of the calyx lanceolate: petals all very entire, veinless; upper one naked, glabrous; lateral ones bearded, and with the upper one, marked with a few blue lines; lower ones often becoming reddish outside: spur short, gibbose, acutish: stigma pubescent, scarcely beaked. Varies in pubescence: leaves are even found glabrous; the capsules are also glabrous or woolly. 4—12 i. rarely—4 f.

Exotic.

tri'colour, (garden violet, heart's-ease, pansy. p. y. b-p. M. ♃.) stem angular, diffuse, divided: leaves oblong, deeply crenate: stipules lyrate-pinnatifid.

odora'ta, (sweet violet. b. M. ♃.) stemless: scions creeping: leaves cordate, crenate, smoothish: calyx obtuse: two lateral petals with a bearded or hairy line.

20—4. VISCUM. 43. 58.

verticilla'tum, (misseltoe. g-w. J. ♄.) branches opposite and whorled: leaves wedge-obovate, 3-nerved: spikes axillary, a little shorter than the leaves. Berries yellowish-white. On the branches of old trees. This, is the golden bough of Virgil, and the sacred plant of the Druids. 1—2 f. *S.*

5—1. VITIS. 46. 72.

Remark. All the North American species of grape are polygamous or diœcious.

labrus''ca, (plum grape. w-g. J. ♄.) leaves broad-cordate, lobe angled, white downy beneath fertile racemes small: berries (blue, flesh-colour and green) large. Var. *labruscoides*, (fox-grape,) has smaller fruit, approaching a tart taste.

vulpi'na, (frost grape. O. w-g. J. ♄.) leaves cordate, acuminate, gash-toothed, glabrous both sides: racemes lax, many-flowered: berries small. Leaves very variable; but the uppermost mature leaves will agree with the description.

5—1. XYLOSTEUM. 48. 58.

cilia'tum, (fly-honey-suckle, twin berry. O. w-y. M. ♄.) berries distinct: leaves ovate and sub-cordate, margin ciliate, in the young state villose beneath: corolla a little gibbous or calcarate at the base: tube ventricose above: divisions short, acute: style exsert. 3—4 f.

3—1. XYRIS. 6. 13.

carolinia'na, (yellow-eyed grass. E. y. Au. ♃.) leaves linear, grass-like: stem or scape two edged: head-ovate-acute: scales obtuse. 9—18 i. *S.*

5—13. ZANTHORHIZA. 26, 61.

apiifo'lia, (parsly, yellowroot. p. Ap. ♄.) stem simple: leaves 2-ternate: petioles dilated and clasping at the base: racemes compound, below the leaves. 1—3 f.

21—5. ZANTHOXYLUM. 46. 94.

fraxin''eum, (prickly ash, tooth-ache bush. O. g-w. M. ♄.) prickly: leaves pinnate: leafets lance-oval, sub-entire, sessile, equal at the base: umbels axillary. 8—12 f. *S.*

19—3. ZEA. 4. 10.

Southern.

mays, (indian corn. y-g. Ju. ⊙.) leaves lance-linear, entire, keeled.

END OF SPECIES.

VOCABULARY,

OR

EXPLANATION OF BOTANICAL TERMS.*

A.

Abor′tive flower. Falling off without producing any fruit.

———— pistil. Defective in some essential part.

———— stamens. Not furnished with anthers.

Abrupt′ leaf. A pinnate leaf which has not an odd or terminal leafet.

———— root. Appearing as if bitten off.

Acero′se leaf. Linear and permanent, as in the pine.

Acic′ular. Shaped like a needle.

A′cinus. One of the little globules constituting a compound berry; as the raspberry.

Acotyled′onous. Having no cotyledons or seed lobes; as ferns.

Acu′minate. Abruptly sharp pointed, the point curved towards one edge of the leaf.

Acute. More gradually sharp pointed than acuminate.

Adnate. Growing together.

Ag′gregate flowers. Those seated on the same receptacle or inclosed in the same calyx without the anthers being united.

Alter′nately-pinnate leaf. When the leafets are arranged alternately on each side of the common footstalk or petiole.

A′ment. Flowers collected on chaffy scales, and arranged on a thread or slender stalk; as in the chesnut and willow.

Amplexicau′lis. Clasping the base of the stem.

Ancip′etal. Having two sharp edges like a sword.

An′gular. Forming angles; when the stems, calyxes, capsules, &c. have ridges running lengthwise.

Annula′ted. Having a ring round the capsules in ferns; a mushroom with a ringed stipe.

An′nual. Living but one year, during which it produces flower and seed

Anom′alous. Whatever forms an exception to general rules.

An′ther. That part of the stamen which contains the pollen.

Antiscorbu′tics. Substances which cure eruptions.

Apet′alous. A flower without petals.

A′pex. The end, or point.

Apen′daged. Having bracts, thorns, prickles, &c.

Appres′sed. Pressed or squeezed close.

Ap′terous. Without wings.

Aquat′ic. Growing in or near water.

Arbores′cent. Becoming woody.

A′rid. Dry and rough.

A′ril. An outer covering of some seeds, which in ripening falls off.

Aris′tate. Awned, ending in a bristle.

Ar′med. Having thorns or prickles.

Aromat′ic. Sweet scented.

Ar′rowform. Shaped like an arrow head; the hind lobes acute.

Artic′ulated. Jointed.

Arundina′ceus. Resembling reeds or stiff large grass.

Arven′sis. Growing in cultivated fields.

Ascen′ding. Rising from the ground obliquely.

Asperifo′lius. Rough leaved.

Astrin′gents. Substances which condense the fibres.

Atten′uated. Gradually diminished or tapering.

Auric′ulate. Having appendages resembling ears.

Awl-form. Sharp at the point, and curved to one side.

Awn. A short stiff bristle.

Ax′il. The angle between a leaf and stem on the upper side.

Ax′illary. Growing out of the axils.

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* A few terms have been included, more properly belonging to other departments of natural history than to Botany.

B.

Ban'ner. The upper petal in a papilionaceous flower.

Barb. A straight process armed with teeth pointing backwards.

Barba'tus. Bearded.

Bar'ren. Producing no fruit; containing stamens only.

Beak'ed. Terminating by a process shaped like the beak of a bird.

Ber'ry. A pulpy pericarp enclosing seeds without capsules.

Bi. Derived from *bis*, signifying two.

Bicor'nes. Anthers with two horns.

Bid'ens. Having two teeth.

Bien'nial. Living two years, in the second of which the flower and fruit is produced; as in wheat.

Bi'fid. Two parted.

Bila'biate. Corolla with two lips.

Bipin'nate. Twice pinnate.

Biter'nate Twice ternate. The petiole supporting three ternate leaves.

Bi'valve. Two valved.

Bor'der. The brim or spreading part of a corolla.

Bot'rus. A cluster like grapes.

Brach'iate. Branches opposite, and each pair at right angles with the preceding.

Bract. Floral leaf, a leaf near the flower which is different from the other leaves of the plant.

Branch. A division of the main stem, or main root.

Branch'let. Subdivision of a branch, a twig.

Brev'is. Short.

Bud. The residence of the infant leaf and flower.

Bulbs. Called roots, sometimes found growing on the stem; strictly speaking bulbs are buds, or the winter residence of the future plants.

Bun'dle. See fascicle.

C.

Cadu'cous. Falling early; as the calyx of the poppy.

Cæs'pitose. Forming turfs, several roots growing together.

Cal'amus. Reed-like.

Calca'reous. Containing lime, applied to shells of oysters, &c.

Calyc'ulated. Having an additional calyx.

Calyp'tra. The cap or hood of pistillate mosses, resembling an extinguisher set on a candle. Although called a calyx it is in reality the corolla of the moss closed.

Calyx. Outer covering of the flower.

Camb. Gelatinous substance between the wood and bark.

Campan'ulate. Bell-form.

Canes'cent. White or hoary.

Cap'illary. Hair-form.

Cap'itate. Growing in heads.

Cap'sule. A little chest; that kind of hollow seed vessel which becomes dry and opens when ripe; a capsule that never opens is called a *samara.*

Cari'na. The keel or lower folded petal of a papilionaceous flower.

Car'inated. Keeled, having a sharp back like the keel of a vessel.

Carno'se. Of a fleshy consistence.

Caryophyl'leous. Pink-like corolla, having five petals with long claws, all regular and set in a tubular calyx.

Cat'kin. See Ament.

Cau'date. Having a tail; as in some seeds.

Cau'dex. The main body of a tree or root.

Caules'cent. Having a stem exclusive of the peduncle or scape.

Cau'line. Growing on the main stem.

Cau'lis. The main, herbage bearing stem of all plants, called in French, la tige.

Cell. The hollow part of a pericarp or anther; each cavity in a pericarp that contains one or more seeds is called a cell. According to the number of these cells the pericarp is one-celled, two-celled, three-celled, &c.

Cel'lular. Made up of little cells or cavities.

Cerea'lis. Any grain from which bread is made. (From Ceres goddess of corn.)

Chaf'fy. Made up of short membranous portions like chaff.

Chan'nelled. Hollowed out longitudinally, with a rounded groove.

Cil'iate. Fringed with parallel hairs.

Cine'reous. Ash coloured.

Cin'gens. Surrounding, girding around.

Cirro'se. Bearing a tendril. From Cir'rus, a tendril or climber.

Clasp'ing. Surrounding the stem with the base of the leaf.

Class. The highest division of plants in the system of Botany. Linnæus divided all plants into 24 classes, 3 of these are now rejected, and the plants which they included placed in the remaining 21 classes.

Cla'vate. Club-shaped, larger at the top than the bottom.

Clau'sus. Closed, shut up.

Claw. The narrow part by which a petal is inserted.

Cleft. Split or divided less than half way.

Climb'ing. Ascending by means of tendrils, as grapes; by leaf stalks, as the Clematis; by cauline radicles or little fibrous roots, as the creeping American ivy.

Club-shaped. See clavate.

Clus'tered. See racemed.

Cly'peate. Form of a buckler. See peltate.

Coad'nate. United at the base.

Coat'ed. With surrounding coats or layers.

Coccin'eous. Scarlet coloured.

Coch'leate. Coiled spirally, like a snail shell.

Cœru'leus. Blue.

Colli'nus. Growing on hills.

Col'oured. Different from green; in the language of botany, green in the vegetable is not called a colour. White, which in reality is not a colour, is so called in botany.

Columel'la. That which connects the seeds to the inside of the pericarp. The central pillar in a capsule.

Column. The style of gynandrous plants; used for columella.

Com'a. A tuft of bracts on the top of a spike of flowers.

Com'mon. Any part is common, which includes or sustains several parts similar among themselves.

Com'pound. Made up of similar simple parts.

——— flowers. Such as are in the class Syngenesia, having florets with united anthers.

——— leaf. When several leafets grow on one petiole.

——— raceme. When several racemes grow along the side of a peduncle.

——— umbel. Having the peduncles subdivided into peduncles of lesser umbels.

——— petiole. A divided leafstalk.

——— peduncle. A divided flower stalk.

Compres'sed. Flattened.

Con'cave. Hollowed on one side.

Conchol'ogy. The science which treats of shells.

Cone. A scaly fruit like that of the pine. See Strobilum.

Conglom'erate. Crowded together.

Con'ic. With a broad base, gradually narrowing to the top, like a sugar loaf.

Conif'erous. Bearing cones.

Con'jugate. In pairs.

Con'nate. Opposite, with the bases united or growing into one, forming the appearance of one leaf. Anthers are sometimes connate.

Conni'vent. Converging, the ends inclining towards each other.

Contin'uous. Uninterrupted.

Contor'ted. Twisted.

Contrac'ted. Close, narrow.

Conver'ging. Approaching or bending towards each other.

Con'vex. Swelling out in a roundish form.

Con'volute. Rolled into a cylindric form, as leaves in the bud.

Cor'culum, or *Corcle.* The embryo or miniature of the future plant, which is found in seeds often between the cotyledons.

Cor'date. Heart-shaped, side lobes rounded.

Coria'ceous. Resembling leather;—thick and parchment-like.

Cor'nu. A horn or spur.

Cornic'ulate. Horn shaped.

Corol'la. (A word derived from *corona,* a crown,) usually encloses the stamens.

Corona'tus. Crowned; as the thistle seed is crowned with down.

Cor'tex. The bark.

Cor'tical. Belonging to the bark.

Coryda'lis. Helmet like.

Co'rymb. Inflorescence, in which the flower stalks spring from different heights on the common stem, forming a flat top.

Cos'tate. Bibbed.

Cotyl'edons. Seed lobes. The fleshy part of seeds which in most plants rises out of the ground and forms the first leaves, called seminal or seed leaves.

Creep'ing. Running horizontally; stems are sometimes creeping, as also roots.

Cre'nate. Scolloped, notches on the margin of a leaf which do not point towards either the apex or base.

Cre'nulate. Finely crenate.

Cres'cent-form. Resembling a half-moon.

Crest'ed. Having an appearance like a cock's comb.

Crini'tus. Long haired.

Crowded. Clustered together.

Crowned. See Coronatus.

Cru'ciform. (From *crux, crucis,* a cross.) Four petals placed like a cross.

Crusta'ceous. Small crusty substances lying one upon another.

Cryptoga'mia. Stamens and pistils concealed.

Cu'bit. A measure from the elbow to the end of the middle finger.

Cucul'late. Hooded or cowled, rolled or folded in, as in the spatha of the *Arum* or wild turnip.

Cucurbita'ceous. Resembling gourds or melons.

Cu'linary. Suitable for preparations of food.

Culm, or *Straw.* The stem of grasses, Indian corn, sugar cane, &c.

Culmif'erous. Having culms; as wheat, grasses, &c.

Cune'iform. Wedge-form, with the stalk attached to the point.

Curv'ed. Bent inwards. See incurved.

Cus'pidate. Having a sharp straight point. (The eye tooth is cuspidate.)

Cu'ticle. The outside skin of a plant, commonly thin, resembling the scarf or outer skin of animals.

Cya'neus. Blue.

Cy'athiform. Shaped like a common wine glass.

Cylin'drical. A circular shaft of nearly equal dimensions throughout its extent.

Cyme. Flower stalks arising from a common centre, afterwards variously subdivided.

Cymo'se. Inflorescence in cymes.

D.

De'bilis. Weak, feeble.

Decan'drous. Plants with ten stames in each flower.

Decid'uous. Falling off in the usual season; opposed to *persistent* and *evergreen*, more durable than *caducous.*

Decli'ned. Curved downwards.

Decomposi'tion. Separation of the chemical elements of bodies.

Decom'pound. Twice compound, composed of compound parts.

Decum'bent. Leaning upon the ground : the base being erect. This term is applied to stems, stamens, &c.

Decur'rent. When the edges of a leaf run down the stem or stalk.

Decur'sive. Decurrently.

Decus'sated. In pairs, crossing each other.

Deflec'ted. Bent off.

Defolia'tion. Shedding leaves in the proper season.

Dehis'cent. Gaping, or opening.

Del'toid. Nearly triangular, or diamond form, as in the leaves of the Lombardy poplar.

Demer'sus. Under water.

Dense. Close, compact.

Den'tate. Toothed; edged with sharp projections: larger than *serrate.*

Dentic'ulate. Minutely toothed.

Denu'date. Plants whose flowers appear before the leaves; appearing naked.

De'orsum. Downwards.

Depres'sed. Flattened, or pressed in at the top.

Dextror'sum. Twining from left to right, as the hop vine.

Diadel'phous. Stamens united in two parcels or sets; flowers mostly papilionaceous; fruit leguminous.

Di'amond form. See deltoid.

Dichot'omous. Forked, dividing into two equal branches.

Diclin'ia. Stamens in one flower, and pistils in another; whether on the same plant or on different plants.

Dicoc'cous. Containing two grains or reeds.

Dicotyled'onous. With two cotyledons or seed lobes.

Did'ymous. Twinned, or double.

Difform. A monopetalous corolla whose tube widens above gradually, and is divided into unequal parts; any distorted part of the plant.

Diffrac'ted. Twice bent.

Diffu'sed. Spreading.

Dig'itate. Like fingers. When one petiole sends off several leafets from a single point at its extremity.

Dimid'iate. Halved.

Diœ'cious. Having staminate and pistillate flowers on different plants.

Dis'coid. Resembling a disk, without rays.

Disk. The whole surface of a leaf, or of the top of a compound flower, as opposed to its rays.

Dissep'iment. The partition of a capsule.

Dissil'iens. A pericarp, bursting with elasticity; as the *impatiens.*

Di'stichus. Growing in two opposite ranks or rows.

Divar'icate. Diverging so as to turn backwards.

Diver'ging. Spreading. Separating widely.

Diur'nus. Enduring but a day.

Dor'sal. Belonging to the back.

Dol'ted. See punctate and perforated.

Droop'ing. Inclining downward, more than nodding.

Drupe. A fleshy pericarp enclosing a stone or nut.

Drupa'ceous. Resembling, or bearing drupes.

Dul'cis. Sweet.

Dumo'sus. Bushy.

Du'plex. Double.

E.

Eared. Applied to the lobes of a heart-form leaf, to the side lobes near the base of some leaves, and to twisted parts in plants which are supposed to resemble the passage into the ear.

Ebur'neus. Ivory white.

Echi'nate. Beset with prickles, as a hedge-hog.

Efflores'cence. Powdering substance.

Effuse. Having an opening by which seeds or liquids may by poured out.

Egg-form. See Ovate.

E'gret, or *Ai'grette.* The feathery or hairy crown of seeds, as the down of thistles and dandelions. It includes whatever remains on the top of the seed after the corolla is removed.

——— stiped. When it is supported on a foot stem.

——— simple. When it consists of a bundle of simple hairs.

——— plumose. When each hair has other little hairs arranged along its sides.

Elip'tic. Oval.

Elon'gated. Exceeding a common length.

Emar'ginate. Having a notch at the end, retuse.

Eno'dis. Without joints or knots.

En'siform. Sword form, two edged, as in the flag and iris.

Entire. Even and whole at the edge.

Entomol'ogy. The science of insects.

Epider'mis. See Cuticle.

Equinoc'tial flowers. Opening at stated hours each day.

Ero'ded. Appearing as if gnawed at the edge.

Es'culent. Eatable.

Ev'ergreen. Remaining green through the year, not deciduous.

Excava'tus. Hollowed out.

Exot'ic. Plants that are brought from foreign countries.

Expan'ded. Spread.

Exser'ted. Projecting out of the flower or sheath.

Eye. See Hilum.

F.

Factit'ious. Not natural, produced by art, (from Facio, to make.)

Fal'cate. Sickle shaped. Linear and crooked.

Fari'na. The pollen. Meal or flower.

Fas'cicle. A bundle.

Fascic'ulate. Collected in bundles.

Fastig'iate. Flat topped.

Favo'sus. Resembling a honey comb.

Faux. Jaws. The throat of the corolla.

Ferns. Cryptogamous plants, with the fruit on the backs of the leaves, or in spikes made up of minute capsules opening transversely.

Fer'tile. Pistillate, yielding fruit.

Fi'bre. Any thread like part.

Fil'ament. The slender thread like part of the stamen.

Fil'iform. Very slender.

Fim'briate. Divided at the edge like fringe.

Fis'tulous. Hollow or tubular, as the leaf of the onion.

Flac'cid. Too limber to support its own weight.

Flagel'liform. Like a whip lash.

Flam'meus. Flame coloured.

Fla'vus. Yellow.

Flesh'y. Thick and pulpy.

Flex'uous. Serpentine, or bending in a zig-zag form.

Flora. Considered by the heathens as the goddess of flowers; descriptions of flowers are often called Floras.

Flo'ral leaf. See Bract.

Flo'ret. Little flower, part of a compound flower.

Flo'rist. One who cultivates flowers.

Flos'cular. A tubular floret.

Flow'er stalk. See Peduncle.

Folia'ceous. Leafy.

Fo'lium. Leaf.

Fol'licle. A seed vessel which opens lengthwise, or on one side only.

Foot'-stalk. Sometimes used instead of Peduncle and Petiole.

Fork'ed. See Dichotomous.

Frag'ilis. Breaking easily, and not bending.

Frond. The leaf of Cryptogamous plants; formerly applied to palms.

Fructifica'tion. The flower and fruit with their parts.

Frutes'cent. Becoming shrubby.

Fru'tex. A shrub.

Fu'gax. Fugacious, flying off.

Ful'vous. Yellowish.

Fun'gi. The plural of Fungus, a mushroom..

Fun'gous. Growing rapidly, with a soft texture like the fungi.

Fun'nel-form. Tubular at the bottom and gradually expanding at the top.

Fu'siform. Spindle shaped, a root thick at the top and tapering downwards.

G.

Gal'ea. A helmet.

Gem'ma. A bud.

Gemma'ceous. Belonging to a bud. Made of the scales of a bud.

Gener'ic name. The name of a genus.

Genic'ulate. Bent like a knee.

Gen'us. (The plural of genus is genera,) a family of plants agreeing in their flower and fruit. Plants of the same genus are thought to possess similar medical powers.

Germ. The lower part of the pistil which afterwards becomes the fruit.

Germina'tion. The swelling of a seed, and the unfolding of its embryo.

Gib'bous. Swelled out commonly on one side.

Glabel'lous. Bald, without covering.

Gla'brous. Sleek, without hairiness.

Gland. A small appendage, which seems to perform some office of secretion or exhalation.

Gland'ular. Having hairs tipped with little heads or glands.

Glau'cous. Sea green, mealy, and easily rubbed off.

Glome A roundish head of flowers.

Glom'erate. Many branchlets terminated by little heads.

Glume. The scales or chaff of grasses, composing the calyx and corolla, the lower ones are called the calyx, all others the corolla; each scale, chaff, or husk, is called a valve: if there is but one the flower is called *univalve*, if two *bivalve*.

Glu'tinous. Viscid, adhesive.

Gram'ina. Grasses and grass like plants. .Mostly found in the class Triandria.

Gramin'eous. Grass like.

Grandiflo'rus. Having large flowers.

Gran'ular. Formed of grains, or covered with grains.

Grave'olens. Having a strong odour.

Grega'rious. In flocks, plants growing together in groups.

Groov'ed. Marked with deep lines.

Gymnosper'mous. With naked seeds.

Gynan'drous. Stamens growing upon the pistil.

H.

Habita'tio, or *Habitat.* The native situation of plants.

Habit. The external appearance of a plant, by which it is known at first sight, without regard to botanical distinctions.

Hair. See Pilus.

Hair'-like. See Capillary.

Hal'bert-form. See Hastate.

Hand'-form. See Palmate.

Hang'ing. See Pendant.

Has'tate. Shaped like a halbert, it differs from arrow-shaped in having the side processes more distinct and divergent.

Head. A dense collection of flowers, nearly sessile.

Heart. See Corculum and Corcle.

Heart'-form. See Cordate.

Hel'met. The concave upper lip of a labiate flower.

Helminthol'ogy. The science of worms

Hepat'ic. Liver like.

Herb. A plant which has not a woody stem.

Herba'ceous. Not woody.

Herb'age. Every part of a plant except the root and fructification.

Herba'rium. A collection of dried plants.

Herb'ist. One who collects and sells plants.

Hexag'onal. Six cornered.

Hi'ans. Gaping.

Hi'lam. The scar or mark on a seed. at the place of attachment of the seed to the seed vessel.

Hir'sute. Rough with hairs.

His'pid. Bristly, more than hirsute.

Ho'ary. Whitish coloured, having a scaly mealiness, not unlike *glaucous*.

Holera'ceous. Suitable for culinary purposes.

Hon'ey cup. See nectary.

Hood'ed. See cucullate, or cowled.

Hora'rius. Continuing but an hour.

Horizon'tal. Parallel to the horizon.

Horn. See spur.

Humil'is. Low, humble.

Husk. The larger kind of glume, as the husks of Indian corn.

Hyberna'lis. Growing in winter.

Hy'brid. A vegetable produced by the mixture of two species, the seeds of hybrids are not fertile.

Hypocrater'iform. Salver shaped, with a tube abruptly expanded into a flat border.

Hypog'ynus. Under the style.

I.

Ichthyol'ogy. The science of fishes.

Icosan'drous. Having about twenty stamens growing on the calyx.

Im'bricate. Lying over, like scales, or the shingles of a roof.

Im'perfect. Wanting the stamen or pistil.

Incarna'tus. Flesh coloured.

Inci'sor. Fore tooth.

Inclu'ded. Wholly received, or contained in a cavity: the opposite of exsert.

Incras'sate. Thickened upward, larger towards the end.

In'crement. The quantity of increase.

Incum'bent. Leaning upon or against.

Incur'ved. Bent inwards.

Indig'enous. Native, growing wild in a country, (some exotics after a time, spread and appear as if indigenous.)

In'durated. Becoming hard.
Indu'sium. A covering, plural indusia.
Infe'rior. Below, a calyx or corolla is inferior when it comes out below the germ.
Infla'ted. Appearing as if blown out with wind, hollow.
Inflex'ed. The same as incurved.
Inflores'cence. The manner in which flowers are connected to the plant by the peduncle, as in the whorl, raceme, &c.
Infrac'tus. Bent in with such an acute angle as to appear broken.
Infundibulifor'mis. Funnel form.
Inser'ted. Growing out of, or fixed upon.
Insi'dens. Sitting upon.
Insigni'tus. Marked.
In'teger. Entire.
Interno'de. The space between joints; as in the grasses.
Interruptedly-pin'nate. When smaller leafets are interposed among the principal ones.
Intor'tus. Twisted inwards.
Involu'crum. A kind of general calyx serving for many flowers, generally situated at the base of an umbel or head.
Involu'cel. A partial involucrum.
In'volute. Rolled inwards.
Irides'cent. Reflecting light, (from Iris the rainbow.)
Irreg'ular. Differing in figure, size or proportion of parts among themselves.
Irritabil'ity. The power of being excited so as to produce contraction, this power belongs to vegetables as well as animals; sensation is thought to imply the existence of internal properties not possessed by plants, though some have attributed sensation to plants, as well as animals.

J.

Jag'ged. Irregularly divided and subdivided.
Jaws. See faux.
Joints. Knots, or rings in culms, pods, leaves &c.
Ju'gum. A yoke; growing in pairs.

K.

Keel. The under lip of a papilionaceous flower.
Keel'ed. Shaped like the keel of a boat or ship.
Ker'nel. See Nucleus.
Kid'ney shaped. Heart shaped without the point, and broader than long.
Knee. A joint, being geniculate.
Knob'bed. In thick lumps as the potato.
Knot. See joints.

L.

La'biate. Having lips as in the class Didynamia.
Lacin'iate. Jagged, irregularly torn, lacerated.
Lactes'cent. Yielding a juice, usually white like milk, sometimes red, as in the blood root.
Lac'teus. Milk white.
Lacu'stris. Growing about lakes.
Læ'vis. Smooth, even.
Lamel'lated. In thin plates.
Lam'ina. The broad or flat end of a petal, in distinction from its claw.
La'nate. Woolly.
Lance'-olate. Spear shaped, narrow with both ends acute.
Lance-o'vate. A compound of lanceolate and ovate, intermediate.
Lat'eral. On one side, (from latus, lateris.)
La'tent. Hidden, concealed, (from lateo, to hide.)
Lar'va. The caterpillar state of an insect.
Lax. Limber, flaccid.
Leaf'et. A partial leaf, part of a compound leaf.
Leaf'-stalk. See petiole.
Leg'ume. A pod or pericarp, having its seeds attached to one side or suture; as the pea and bean.
Legu'minous. Bearing legumes.
Lepan'thium. A term used for a petal like nectary; like that of the larkspur and monkshood.
Li'ber. The inner bark.
Lig'neous. Woody.
Lig'ulate. Strap or ribbon like, flat, as the florets of the dandelion.
Lilia'ceous. A corolla with six petals gradually spreading from the base.
Limb. The border or spreading part of a monopetalous corolla.
Lin'ear. Long and narrow with parallel sides, as the leaves of grasses.
Lip. The under petal in a labiate corolla.
Littora'lis. Growing on coasts, or shores.
Liv'idus. Dark purple.
Lobe. A large division, or distinct portion of a leaf or petal.
Locu'lus. A little cell, (from locus, a place.)

Lo'ment. A pod resembling a legume, but divided by transverse partitions.

Longifo'lius. Long leaved.

Lougis'simus. Very long.

Lu'cidus. Bright, shining.

Lu'rid. Of a pale dull colour.

Lu'teus. Yellow.

Ly'rate. Pinnatifid, with a large roundish leafet at the end.

M.

Macula'tus. Spotted.

Mares'cent. Withering.

Mar'gin. The edge, or border.

Mar'itime. Growing near the sea.

Medul'la. The pith.

Mellif'erous. Producing, or containing honey.

Mem'branous. Very thin and delicate.

Mid'rib. The main or middle rib of a leaf running from the stem to the apex.

Minia'tus. Scarlet, vermillion colour.

Mola'res. Back teeth, grinders.

Mol'lis. Soft.

Mollus'cous. Such animals as have a soft body without bones; as the oyster.

Monadel'phous. Having the stamens united in a tube at the base.

Monil'iform. Granulate, strung together like beads.

Monocotyl'edons. Having but one cotyledon.

Monœ'cious. Having pistillate and staminate flowers on the same plant.

Monopet'alous. The corolla all in one piece.

Monophyl'lous. Consisting of one leaf.

Monosper'mus. One seed to a flower.

Monta'nus. Growing on mountains.

Moon-form. See crescent form.

Mosses. The second order of the class Cryptogamia.

Mu'cronate. Having a small point or prickle at end of an obtuse leaf.

Multiflo'rus. Many flowered.

Mul'tiplex. Many fold, petals lying over each other in two rows.

Mul'tus. Many.

Mu'ricate. Covered with prickles.

N.

Naked. Destitute of parts usually found.

Na'nus. Dwarfish, very small.

Nap. Downy, or like fur, tomentose.

Napifor'mis. Resembling a turnip.

Na'tant. Floating.

Natural character. That which is apparent, having no reference to any particular method of classification.

Natural History. The science which treats of Nature.

Nec'tary. The part of a flower which produces honey: this term is applied to any appendage of the flower which has no other name.

Nemoro'sus. Growing in groves, often given as a specific name, as Anemone nemorosa, the ending in *a*, denotes the adjective as being in the feminine gender; the adjective in Latin varying its termination to conform to the gender of the substantive.

Nerves. Parallel veins.

Nerved. Marked with nerves, so called, though not organs of sensibility like the nerves in the animal system.

Nic'titans. From a word which signifies to twinkle, or wink; applied as a specific name to some plants which appear sensitive; as the Cassia nictitans.

Ni'ger. Black.

Nit'idus. Glossy, glittering.

Niv'eus. Snow white.

Nod'ding. Partly drooping.

Node, Nodus. Knot.

No'men. A name.

Notch'ed. See crenate.

Nu'cleus. Nut, or kernel.

Nu'dus. See naked.

Nut, Nux. See nucleus.

Nu'tant. See nodding, pendulous.

O.

Ob. A word which prefixed to other terms, denotes the inversion of the usual position; as, obcordate, inversely-cordate.

Obcon'ic. Conic with the point downwards.

Obcor'date. Heart shaped with the point downwards.

Oblance'olate. Lanceolate with the base the narrowest.

Obli'que. A position between horizontal and vertical.

Oblong. Longer than oval, with the sides parallel.

Obo'vate. Ovate with the narrowest end towards the stem, or place of insertion.

Ob'solete. Indistinct, appearing as if worn out.

Obtu'se. Blunt, rounded, not acute.

Odora'tus. Scented, odorous.

Officina'lis. Such plants as are kept for sale as medicinal, or of use in the arts.

Oid, Oi'des. This termination imports resemblance, as petaloid, like a petal; thalictroides, resembling a thalictrum, &c..

Opa'que. Not transparent.

Oper'culum. The lid which covers the capsules of mosses.

Op'posite. Standing against each other on opposite sides of the stem.

Orbic'ular. Circular.

Orchid'eous. Petals like the orchis, four arched, the fifth longer.

Ornithol'ogy. That department of zoology which treats of birds.

Os. A bone. A mouth.

Os'seous. Bony, hard.

O'vate. Egg shaped, oval with the lower end largest.

Ovip'arous. Animals produced from eggs, as birds, &c.

Ovum. An egg.

P.

Palate. A prominence in the lower lip of a labiate corolla, closing or nearly closing the throat.

Palea'ceous. See Chaffy.

Palmate. Hand-shaped; divided so as to resemble the hand with the fingers spread.

Palu'stris. Growing in swamps and marshes.

Pandu'riform. Contracted in the middle like a violin or guitar.

Pan'icle. A loose, irregular bunch of flowers with subdivided branches, as the oat.

Pan'icled. Bearing panicles.

Papil'io. A butterfly.

Papiliona'ceous. Butterfly-shaped,—an irregular corolla consisting of four petals; the upper one is called the banner, the two side ones wings, and the lower one the keel, as the pea. Mostly found in the class Diadelphia.

Papillo'se. Covered with protuberances.

Pappus. The down of seeds, as the dandelion; a feathery appendage. See Egret.

Parasit'ic. Growing on another plant and deriving nourishment from it.

Paren'chyma. A succulent vegetable substance; the cellular substance; the thick part of leaves between the opposite surfaces; the pulpy part of fruits, as in the apple, &c.

Partial. Used in distinction to general.

Parti'tion. The membrane which divides pericarps into cells, called the *dissepiment.* It is *parallel* when it unites with the valves where they unite with each other. It is *contrary* or *transverse* when it meets a valve in the middle, or in any part not at its suture.

Parted. Deeply divided; more than cleft.

Patens. Spreading, forming less than a right angle.

Pau'ci. Few in number.

Pec'tinate. Like the teeth of a comb, intermediate between fimbriate and pinnatifid.

Pedate. Having a central leaf or segment and the two side ones which are compound, like a bird's foot.

Ped'icel. A little stalk or partial peduncle.

Pedun'cle. A stem bearing the flower and fruit.

Pel'licle. A thin membranous coat.

Pellu'cid. Transparent or limpid.

Peltate. Having the petiole attached to some part of the under side of the leaf.

Pendant. Hanging down, pendulous.

Pen'cilled. Shaped like a painter's pencil or brush.

Peregri'nus. Foreign, wandering.

Peren'nial. Lasting more than two years.

Perfo'liate. Having a stem running through the leaf; differs from *connate* in not consisting of two leaves.

Per'forate. Having holes as if pricked through; differs from *punctate*, which has dots resembling holes.

Per'ianth. A sort of calyx.

Per'icarp. A seed vessel or whatever contains the seed.

Per'manent. Any part of a plant is said to be permanent when it remains longer than is usual for similar parts in most plants.

Persis'tent. Not falling off. See *permanent.*

Per'sonate. Masked or closed.

Pe'tal. The leaf of a corolla usually coloured.

Pe'tiole. The stalk which supports the leaf.

Phenoga'mous. Such flowers as have stamens and pistils visible, including all plants except the cryptogamous.

Physiol'ogy. Derived from the Greek, a discourse of nature.

Phytol'ogy. The science which treats of the organization of vegetables, nearly synonymous with the *physiology of vegetables.*

Pi'leus. The hat of a fungus.

Pillar. See Columella and Column.

Pilose. Hairy, with distinct straightish hairs.

Pilus. A hair.

Pimpled. See Papillose.

Pinna. A wing feather, applied to leafets.

Pinnate. A leaf is pinnate when the leafets are arranged in two rows on the side of a common petiole, as in the rose.

Pinnati'fid. Cut in a pinnate manner. It differs from pinnate in being a simple leaf deeply parted, while pinnate is a compound of distinct leafets.

Pistil. The central organ of most flowers, consisting of the germ, style and stigma.

Pis'tillate. Having pistils but no stamens.

Pith. The spongy substance in the centre of the stems and roots of most plants.

Plaited. Folded like a fan.

Plane. Flat with an even surface.

Plica'tus. See Plaited.

Plumo'se. Feather-like.

Plu'mula or *Plume.* The ascending part of a plant at its first germination.

Plurimus. Very many.

Pod. A dry seed vessel, not pulpy, most commonly applied to legumes and siliques.

Pointal. A name sometimes used for pistil.

Pollen. The dust which is contained within the anthers.

Polyan'drous. Having many stamens inserted upon the receptacle.

Polyg'amous. Having some flowers which are perfect, and others with stamens only or pistils only.

Polymor'phous. Changeable, assuming many forms.

Polypet'alous. Having many petals.

Polyphyl'lous. Having many leaves.

Pome. A pulpy fruit, containing a capsule, as the apple.

Porous. Full of holes.

Præmor'se. Ending bluntly as if bitten off; the same as abrupt.

Pras'inus. Green, like a leek.

Praten'sis. Growing in meadow land.

Prickle. Differs from the thorn in being fixed to the bark, the thorn is fixed to the wood.

Prismat'ic. Having several parallel flat sides.

Probos'cis. An elongated nose or snout, applied to projecting parts of vegetables.

Process. A projecting part.

Procum'bent. Lying on the ground.

Prolif'erous. A flower is said to be proliferous when it has smaller ones growing out of it.

Prop. Tendrils and other climbers.

Prox'imus. Near.

Pseudo. When prefixed to a word it implies obsolete or false.

Pubes'cent. Hairy, downy or woolly.

Pulp. The juicy cellular substance of berries and other fruits.

Pulver'ulent. Turning to dust.

Pu'milus. Small, low.

Punctate. Appearing dotted as if pricked. See Perforated.

Pungent. Sharp, acrid, piercing.

Purpur'eus. Purple.

Pusil'lus. Diminutive, low.

Puta'men. A hard shell.

Q.

Quadran'gular. Having four corners or angles.

Quater'nate. Four together.

Quinate. Five together.

R.

Raceme. From *rax*, a bunch of grapes, a cluster; that kind of inflorescence in which the flowers are arranged by simple pedicels on the sides of a common peduncle; as the currant.

Ra'chis. The common stalk to which the florets and spikelets of grasses are attached; as in wheat heads. Also the midrib of some leaves and fronds.

Ra'diate. The ligulate florets around the margin of a compound flower.

Rad'ix. A root.

Rad'ical. Growing from the root.

Rad'icle. The part of the corculum which afterwards forms the root; also the minute fibres of a root.

Ramif'erous. Producing branches.

Ramus. A branch.

Ray. The outer margin of compound flowers.

Recep'tacle. The end of a flower stalk; the base to which the different parts of fructification are usually attached.

Recli'ned. Bending over with the end inclining towards the ground.

Rectus. Straight.

Recur'ved. Curved backwards.

Reflex'ed. Bent backwards, more than recurved.

Re'niform. Kidney-shaped, heart-shaped without the point.

Repand. Slightly serpentine, or waving upon the edge.

Repens. Creeping.

Resu'pinate. Upside down.

Retic'ulate. Veins crossing each other like net work.

Retuse. Having a slight notch in the end, less than emarginate.

Rever'sed. Bent back toward the base.

Rev'olute. Rolled backward or outward.

Rhomboid. Diamond-form.

Rib. A nerve like support to a leaf.

Rigid. Stiff, not pliable.

Ring. The band around the capsules of ferns.

Ringent. Gaping or grinning, a term belonging to labiate corollas.

Root. The descending part of a vegetable.

Rootlet. A fibre of a root, a little root.

Rosa'ceous. A corolla formed of roundish spreading petals, without claws or with very short ones.

Rose'us. Rose coloured.

Rostel. That pointed part of the embryo, which tends downward at the first germination of the seed.

Rostrate. Having a protuberance like a bird's beak.

Rotate. Wheel-form.

Rotun'dus. Round.

Rubra. Red.

Rufous. Reddish yellow.

Rugose. Wrinkled.

Run'cinate. Having large teeth pointing backward, as the dandelion.

Rupes'tris. Growing among rocks.

S.

Sag'ittate. Arrow-form.

Salif'erous. Bearing or producing salt.

Salsus. Salt tasted.

Salver-form. Corolla with a flat spreading border proceeding from the top of a tube; flower monopetalous.

Sam'ara. A winged pericarp not opening by valves, as the maple.

Sap. The watery fluid contained in the tubes and little cells of vegetables.

Sapor. Having taste.

Sarmen'tose. Running on the ground, and striking root from the joints only, as the strawberry.

Sca'ber or *Sca'brious.* Rough.

Scandens. Climbing.

Scape. A stalk which springs from the root, and supports flowers and fruit but no leaves, as the dandelion.

Sca'rious. Having a thin membranous margin.

Scattered. Standing without any regular order.

Scions. Shoots proceeding laterally from the roots or bulb of a root.

Segment. A part or principal division of a leaf, calyx or corolla.

Semper'virens. Living through the winter, and retaining its leaves.

Serrate. Notched like the teeth of a saw.

Ser'rulate. Minutely serrate.

Sessile. Sitting down; placed immediately on the main stem without a foot stalk.

Seta. A bristle.

Seta'ceous. Bristle-form.

Shaft. A pillar, sometimes applied to the style.

Sheath. A tubular or folded leafy portion including within it the stem.

Shoot. Each tree and shrub sends forth annually a large shoot in the spring, and another in June.

Shrub. A plant with a woody stem, branching out nearer the ground than a tree, usually smaller.

Sic'cus. Dry.

Sil'icle. A seed vessel constructed like a silique, but not longer than it is broad.

Silique. A long pod or seed vessel of two valves, having the seed attached to the two edges alternately.

Simple. Not divided, branched or compounded.

Sin'uate. The margin hollowed out, resembling a bay.

Si'nus. A bay; applied to the plant, a roundish cavity in the edge of the leaf or petal.

So'ri. Plural of *sorus:* fruit dots on ferns.

Spa'dix. An elongated receptacle of flowers, commonly proceeding from a spatha.

Spa'tha. A sheathing calyx opening lengthwise on one side, and consisting of one or more valves.

Spat'ulate. Large, obtuse at the end, gradually tapering into a stalk at the base.

Spe'cies. The lowest division of vegetables.

Specif'ic. Belonging to a species only.

Spike. A kind of inflorescence in which the flowers are sessile, or nearly so, as in the mullein, or wheat.

Spike'let. A small spike.

Spin'dle shaped. Thick at top, gradually tapering, *fusiform.*

Spine. A thorn or sharp process growing from the wood.

Spino'sus. Thorny.

Spi'ral. Twisted like a screw.

Spur. A sharp hollow projection from a flower, commonly the Nectary.

Spur'red-rye. A morbid swelling of the seed, of a black or dark colour, sometimes called ergot; the black kind is called malignant ergot.—Grain growing in low moist ground, or new land, is most subject to it.

Squamo'sus. Scaly.

Squarro'se. Ragged, having divergent scales.

Stamen. That part of the flower on which the artificial classes are founded.

Stam'inate. Having stamens without pistils.

Standard. See *banner.*

Stel'late. Like a star.

Stem. A general supporter of leaves, flowers and fruit.

Stemless. Having no stem.

Ster'ile. Barren.

Stig'ma. The summit, or top of the pistil.

Stipe. The stem of a fern, or fungus; also the stem of the down of seeds, as in the dandelion.

Stip'itate. Supported by a stipe.

Sti'pule. A leafy appendage, situated at the base of petioles, or leaves.

Stolonif'erous. Putting forth scions, or running shoots.

Stramin'eus. Straw like, straw coloured.

Strap-form. Ligulate.

Stratum. A layer, plural *strata.*

Striate. Marked with fine parallel lines.

Strictus. Stiff and straight, erect.

Strigose. Armed with close thick bristles.

Strob'ilum. A cone, an ament with woody scales.

Style. That part of the pistil which is between the stigma and the germ.

Sua'vis. Sweet, agreeable.

Sub. Used as a diminutive, prefixed to different terms to imply the existence of a quality in an inferior degree; in English, may be rendered by somewhat; it also signifies under.

Subero'se. Corky.

Submersed. Growing under water.

Subter'raneus. Growing and flowering under ground.

Subtus. Beneath.

Sub'acute. Somewhat acute.

Sub'sessile. Almost sessile.

Sub'ulate. Awl shaped, narrow and sharp pointed. See awl form.

Suc'culent. Juicy, it is also applied to a pulpy leaf, whether juicy or not.

Suc'cus. Sap.

Sucker. A shoot from the root by which the plant may be propagated.

Suffru'ticose. Somewhat shrubby,—shrubby at the base; an under shrub.

Sul'cate. Furrowed, marked with deep lines.

Super. Above.

Supradecom'pound. More than decompound; many times subdivided.

Superior. A calyx or corolla, is superior, when it proceeds from the upper part of the germ.

Supi'nus. Face upwards. See resupinatus

Suture. The line or seam formed by the junction of two valves of a seed vessel

Sylves'tris. Growing in woods.

Syngene'sious. Anthers growing together, forming a tube; such plants as constitute the class Syngenesia, being also compound flowers.

Syno'nyms. Synonomous, different names for the same plant.

Synop'sis. A condensed view of a subject, or science.

T.

Teeth of Mosses. The outer fringe of the peristomium is generally in 4, 8, 16, 32, or 64 divisions; these are called teeth.

Tegens. Covering.

Teg'ument. The skin or covering of seeds; often bursts off on boiling, as in the pea.

Tem'perature. The degree of heat and cold to which any place is subject, not wholly dependant upon latitude, being affected by elevation; the mountains of the torrid zone produce the plants of the frigid zone. In cold regions, white and blue petals are more common; in warm regions, red and other vivid colours: in the spring we have more white petals, in the autumn more yellow ones.

Ten'dril. A filiform or thread like appendage of some climbing plants, by which they are supported by twining round other objects.

Tenel'lus. Tender, fragile.

Tenuifo'lius. Slender leaved.

Ten'uis. Thin and slender.

Ter'ete. Round, cylindrical, tapering.

Ter'minal. Extreme, situated at the end.

Ter'nate. Three together, as the leaves of the clover.

Tetradyna'mous. With four long and two short stamens.

Tetran'drous. Having four stamens.

Thorn. A sharp process from the woody part of the plant: considered as an imperfect bud indurated.

Thread-form. See filiform.

Thyrse. See panicle.

Tige. See caulis.

Tincto'rius. Plants containing colouring matter.

Tomen'tose. Downy, covered with fine matted pubescence.

Toothed. See dentate.

Tra'cheæ. Names given to vessels supposed to be designed for receiving and distributing air.

Transverse. Crosswise.

Trichot'omous. Three forked.

Trifid. Three cleft.

Trifo'liate. Three leaved.

Trilo'bate. Three lobed.

Triloc'ular. Three celled.

Trun'cate. Having a square termination, as if cut off.

Trunk. The stem or bole of a tree.

Tube. The lower hollow cylinder of a monopetalous corolla.

Tuber. A solid fleshy knob.

Tuberous. Thick and fleshy, containing tubers, as the potato.

Tubular. Shaped like a tube, hollow.

Tu'nicate. Coated with surrounding layers, as in the onion.

Tur'binate. Shaped like a top, or pear.

Twining. Ascending spirally.

Twisted. Coiled.

U.

Uligino'sus. Growing in damp places.

Umbel. A kind of inflorescence in which the flower stalks diverge from one centre, like the sticks of an umbrella.

Umbellif'erous. Bearing umbels.

Unarmed. Without thorns or prickles.

Un'cinate. Hooked.

Unctuo'sus. Greasy, oily.

Un'dulate. Waving, serpentine, gently rising and falling.

Unguis. A claw.

Unguic'ulate. Inserted by a claw.

Uniflo'rus. One flowered.

U'nicus. Single.

Unilat'eral. Growing on one side.

Urce'olate. Swelling in the middle, and contracted at the top in the form of a pitcher.

V.

Valves. The parts of a seed vessel into which it finally separates; also, the leaves which make up a glume, or spatha.

Variety. A subdivision of a species, distinguished by characters which are not permanent; varieties do not with certainty produce their kind by their seed. All apples are but varieties of one species; if the seeds of a sour apple be planted, they will produce, perhaps, some sweet apples, some of a green colour, some red: there are as many trees of different kinds of fruit, as there are seeds planted. The quince is a species of the same genus, or family, as the apple; but, the seed of a quince has never been known to produce an apple tree.

Vaulted. Arched over; with a concave covering.

Veined. Having the divisions of the petiole irregularly branched on the under side of the leaf.

Ven'tricose. Swelled out. See inflated.

Vernal. Appearing in the spring.

Ver'rucose. Warty, covered with little protuberances.

Vertical. Perpendicular.

Verticil'late. Whorled, having leaves or flowers in a circle round the stem.

Vesic'ular. Made up of cellular substance.

Ves'pertine. Flowers opening in the evening.

Vil'lous. Hairy, the hairs long and soft.

Viola'ceous. Violet coloured.

Vires'cens. Inclining to green.

Vir'gate. Long and slender. Wart-like.

Vir'idis. Green.

Virgul'tum. A small twig.

Virose. Nauseous to the smell, poisonous.

Viscid. Thick, glutinous, covered with adhesive moisture.

Vitel'lus. Called also the yolk of the seed; it is between the albumen and embryo.

Vit'reus. Glassy.

Vivip'arous. Producing others by means of bulbs or seeds, germinating while yet on the old plant.

W.

Wedge-form. Shaped like a wedge, rounded at the large end, obovate with straightish sides.

Wheel-shaped. See *rotate.*

Wings. The two side petals of a papilionaceous flower.

Wood. The most solid parts of trunks of trees and shrubs.

Z.

Zo'ology. The science of animals.

Zo'ophytes. The lowest order of animals, sometimes called animal plants, though considered as wholly belonging to the animal kingdom. They resemble plants in their form, and exhibit very faint marks of sensation.

ANALYSIS.

The object of this analysis is to direct the mind of the pupil to the leading facts and principles, and to assist the teacher in questioning. The suggestions can easily be put into the form of interrogations. Those parts in Italic are such as may be omitted in examinations.

INTRODUCTION. LECTURE I. Page 11.

By the faculties of the mind we are able to investigate material objects—Systems of man do not change the laws of nature—Power of the mind to form classes.
Page 12. Classification not always founded upon striking resemblances, Ex. botany—Importance of system—Study of botany is practical logic—Adapted to females, &c.—Necessary to the medical profession.
Page 13. Experience of the Indians lost from their ignorance of botany—Study of plants pleasing—Page 14, Leads to devout affections—DIVISION OF THE SUBJECT.

PART I. LECTURE II. Page 17.

Division of the sciences which relate to mind—Those which relate to matter—Branches of natural history—Page 18, Departments in botany—Definition of botany—Vegetable anatomy—Systematic botany—Physiological botany—Divisions of systematic botany—Artificial system—PARTS OF THE FLOWER—Page 19, Parts of the stamen—Parts of the pistil—DIVISION OF PLANTS INTO CLASSES.

LECTURE III. Page 20.

*Method of analyzing plants**—*Analysis of the pink*—Page 21, *Analysis of the lily.*

LECTURE IV. Page 22.

Analysis of the rose—Page 24, *Analysis of the poppy*—Page 25, *Descending method of analysis.*

LECTURE V. Page 26.

Latin and Greek numerals—Page 27, *Directions for pronouncing the names of plants*—Page 28, Classes of Linnæus—Page 30, Orders of Linnæus—Page 32, *Synopsis of classes and orders.*

LECTURE VI. Page 32.

Natural orders of Jussieu—Page 35, *Natural orders of Linnæus.*

LECTURE VII. Page 37.

Method of analyzing plants by a series of comparisons—Page 38, Subdivisions of the calyx—Different forms of monopetalous corollas—Page 40, Polypetalous corollas—Different kinds of nectaries—Different kinds of pericarps—Page 41, Parts of the pericarp—General facts relating to vegetables—Page 43, *Method of preserving plants—Of preparing an herbarium*—Advantage of botanical excursions—Page 44, *Poisonous plants—Such as are seldom poisonous*—Proper flowers for analysis—Wild flowers interesting to the botanist.

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* The directions for analyzing plants are intended as examples for *practice, not for recitations.* The analysis of plants when they can be obtained should always constitute a part of the exercise of a botanical class at public examinations.

PART II. LECTURE VIII. Page 45.

Study of external objects strengthens the mind—Page 46, Intellectual pursuits facilitated by an acquaintance with the natural sciences—Two kinds of organs of vegetables—The first set of organs—The second set—Page 47, The root—Duration of roots—Annual—Biennial—Page 48, Perennial—Forms of roots—Page 49, Bulbous roots common to cold countries—Specific character taken from the root—Varieties of form in the same species. Ex. potato—STEMS AND STALKS—Page 50, Different kinds of stems—Page 51, Hardness of stems—*Direction*—Page 52, *Shape*—*Surface*—Divisions.

LECTURE IX. Page 52.

Buds—Care of Providence in their formation—Page 53, The goodness of God, particularly manifested towards man—Philosophical speculations should not lead us to forget the Author of nature—Manner in which the germ is protected by the bud—Page 54, Buds most common in cold countries—Different kinds of buds—Bulbs—Page 55, Viviparous plants—Oviparous—Origin of buds—Buds formed in summer—Appear the following spring—LEAVES—Difficult to define—Botanical definitions do not include the constituent elements of vegetables—General definition of a leaf—Important circumstance—Period at which leaves appear—Foliation—Aphyllous—Petiole—Sessile—Evergreen—deciduous—Simple—Compound—Leaves important—Specific character—Leaves with respect to succession—Page 58, *Insertion*—*Situation*—*Form*—*Composition*—Page 59, *Summit*—*Margins*—*Surfaces*—Magnitude—*Duration*—Page 60, Colour.

LECTURE X. Page 61.

Leaves compared to the lungs of animals—Skeleton of the leaf—Vascular system—Analagous to the bones of animals—Fibres of the leaf, tubular and transparent—Cellular system—Cuticle—Page 62, Some of the uses of leaves—Frondescence—Page 63, Irritability—Effect of light—Sleep of plants—Defoliation—Page 64, Concluding remark—APPENDAGES TO PLANTS—Observation—Different kinds of appendages.

LECTURE XI. Page 67.*

Chemical composition of plants—*Living substances distinguished from dead matter*—*Chemical analysis of vegetable substances*—*Proximate principles*—Page 68, *Divided into two classes*—*First class divided into three orders*—*First order includes vegetable acids*—*Second order, gums and sugar*—Page 69, *Third order, oils, &c.*—Page 70, *Second class of proximate principles or elements*—Page 71, *Cause of the red colour of fruits*—*Colouring of the petals of flowers*—*The sap*—*Analysis of the sap of the elm, &c.*—Page 72, *Sap compared to the blood of animals*—*Abundant in winter*—*Variety of combinations formed by a few elementary principles*—*Two causes of the diversity*—*We can sometimes imitate the combinations of nature*—*Man cannot create.*

LECTURE XII. Page 73.

CALYX AND COROLLA—Introductory remarks—The production of the fruit the great object of nature—Fruit exists in the flower—Organs of fructification—Page 74, Calyx—Parts of the calyx—Position—Different kinds of calyxes—Page 75, Uses of the calyx—COROLLA, how remarkable?—How distinguished from the calyx?—Page 76, Rule of Linnæus—Caducous—Marescent—Petalous—Apetalous—Monopetalous—Polypetalous—Parts of the corolla—Situation—Regular—Page 77, Forms of monopetalous corollas—Polypetalous corollas—Anomalous—NECTARY—Use—Opinion of Linnæus—Page 78, Nectary not always a separate organ from the corolla—Different kinds of nectaries—Opinions respecting their use—Honey—Uses of the corolla—Page 79, Reflection.

LECTURE XIII. Page 79.

STAMENS AND PISTILS—Necessary to the perfection of the fruit—Stamens—

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* Pupils unacquainted with chemistry cannot be expected to understand every part of this lecture; it may be wholly omitted without injury to the connection of subjects.

How divided ?—Filament—Page 80, Anther—Pistil—Germ—Style—Stigma—Page 81, Use of the stamens and pistils—Description of the pollen—Page 82, Its use in the vegetable economy—Real use of the stamens and pistils unknown till the time of Linnæus—Flowers fold their petals in wet weather—Fertilization of the fig—Page 83, various methods by which pollen is conveyed to pistillate plants—Pollen and stigma in perfection at the same time.

LECTURE XIV. Page 83.

Inflorescence, receptacle, pericarp—Position of the corolla considered under three heads—Page 84, 1st, The corolla with respect to the organs which it contains—2d, Branches which support it—3d, Flowers which surround it—Inflorescence—Peduncle—Pedicel—Different kinds of inflorescence—Page 85, Receptacle—Page 86, Different kinds of receptacles—Pericarp or fruit—Fruit consists of two parts—Use of the fruit—Pericarp sometimes wanting—Different kinds of pericarps—Page 89, Best time for examining fruits.

LECTURE XV. Page 89.

The seed—Appearances which nature would present if the seed were no longer perfected—Consists of three parts—Page 90, The kernel consists of four parts—Page 91, Embryo, consists of two parts—Page 92, Appendages to the seed—Egret—Stipe—General remarks upon seeds—Number variable—Page 93, Size variable—Pericarp separating itself from the plant—Dispersion of seeds—Page 94, Circle of vegetation completed—Concluding remarks.

LECTURE XVI. Page 95.

Reanimation of the vegetable world—Germination—Opinions respecting the downward course of the root—Seed leaves—The plume—Page 97, Why not carried downward like the radicle—Season of germination—Tenacity of the vital principle—Page 98, Plants have analogies to animals—Difficult to determine where vegetable life commences. Bark—Composed of three parts—Page 99, Epidermis, or cuticle—Cellular integument—Page 100, Cortex, or true bark—Liber—Wood—Page 101, Pith.

PART III. LECTURE XVII. Page 102.

Classification—Nature arranges plants into kinds, or sorts—Number of known species—Necessity of order in description—Attempts at arrangement made before the time of Linnæus—Page 103, Tournefort's method—Defects in this classification—Page 104, System of Linnæus—Not entirely perfect—Advantages of taking different views of a subject—Human mind destined to progressive improvement—Difference between system and method. (See note.) System of Linnæus provides for the classification of such plants as are yet to be discovered—Page 105, Illustrations of its divisions—Individual—Species—Genus—A knowledge of one species in a genus enables us to recognise all other species of the same genus—Derivation of generic names—Page 106, Natural method of classification—Many plants cannot be referred to any natural families—Natural method of Jussieu—The three methods of classification considered, present the most important characters of the plant under different points of view—Comparison of these methods—System of Linnæus offers something positive—Page 108, Natural orders of Linnæus—Three kinds of characters to be used in descriptions of plants—Factitious character—Essential—Natural.

LECTURE XVIII. Page 109.

Natural families of plants—How like artificial orders ?—How different ? Page 110, Liliaceous flowers—Cruciform flowers. Papilionaceous flowers—Necessary to distinguish between rules and exceptions—Page 112, Analysis of a pea—Natural families separated; some plants being taken from the 16th class, and carried to the 10th. Germ of the papilionaceous plant—Page 113, Some of the leguminous plants.

LECTURE XIX. Page 113.

Labiate flowers—Subdivided into ringent and personate—Mostly placed in the class Didynamia—Page 115, Umbellate plants—Page 116, Compound flowers—Page 117, Divided into three sections—Analysis of the Daisy.

LECTURE XX. Page 119.

Use of botanical names—Page 120, Artificial classes and orders considered in groupes—Page 121, Class monandria—Hippuris—Salicornia—Tropical plants belonging to this class—Order diandria—Lilac—Page 122, Jasmine—Sage—Page 123, Enchanter's night shade—Symmetry of structure in many plants—Veronica—Order digynia—Sweet vernal grass—Page 124, Catalpa—Recapitulation.

LECTURE XXI. Page 124.

Class triandria—Crocus—Iris—Page 125, Order digynia—Grasses—Flowers of the grasses—Roots of the grasses—Page 126, Importance of grass-like plants—Sugar cane—Page 127, Bamboo—Analysis of the orchard grass—Class tetrandria—Order monogynia—How divided?—Page 128, Houstonia—Plantain—Aggregate flowers, including Buttonbush and Teasel—Page 129, Cornus—Bed-straw—madder.

LECTURE XXII. Page 129.

Class pentandria—How different from the class Syngenesia? Page 130, Order monogynia—Natural family Asperifoliæ, rough leaved plants, including Houndstongue, Lungwort, Gromwell, and Borago—Natural family Luridæ or lurid plants, Page 131, Potato—Stramonium—Tobacco—Page 132, Mandrake, or Atropa—Mullein—Page 133, Flowers with Wheel form corollas—Coffee—Natural family, Contortæ, or twisted corollas—Wine grape, of the Natural Order, Vites—Page 134, Temperature of regions which produce the wine grape—Mean annual temperature, (See note.)—Festival of the Vintage—Page 135, Vineyards.

LECTURE XXIII. Page 135.

Order digynia, or second order of class Pentandria—Oleander—Apocynum—Fringed Gentian—Pigweed—Page 136, Umbellate plants—Water Cowbane—Poison hemlock—Analysis of the Coriander—Page 137, Umbellate plants used for food—For confectionary and medicine—Page 137, Order trigynia—Elder—Snow-ball—Order tetragynia—Grass of Parnassus—Page 138, Order Pentagynia—Flax—Order Polygynia—Zanthorhiza—Instruction not all that is necessary for improvement.

LECTURE XXIV. Page 139.

Class hexandria—Ancient titles of distinction among flowers—Symmetry of parts in the flowers of this class—Spider's-wort—Lily—Tulip—Page 140, Snow-drop—Onion and Bulrush—Barberry—Flowers of this class generally more remarkable for beauty than utility. Dr. Johnson's description of a walk in a tulip garden—Page 143, Order digynia—Rice—Order trigynia, Rumex, Trillium—Page 144, Order polygynia, Water Plantain—Class heptandria, Order monogynia, Trientalis—Horse-chesnut—Order tetragynia, Saururus—Order heptagynia, Septas—Smallest of of the classes.

LECTURE XXV. Page 145.

Class octandria—Evening primrose—Willow-herb—Cranberry—Ladies'-ear-drop—Page 146, Heath—Lace-bark-tree—Nasturtion—Buck-wheat—Page 147, Genus Paris—Class enneandria—Different species of the Genus Laurus, as the Bay, Camphor, Cinnamon, Sassafras, &c.—Page 148, Order trigynia, Different species of Rhubarb—Remarks upon some of the classes—Knowledge of exotics desirable—Flowers, in their native situations.

LECTURE XXVI. Page 149.

Class decandria—Not the only class with ten stamens—Order monogynia—Contains some papilionaceous flowers—Wild indigo—Cassia—Cercis—

Page 150, Winter-green and other plants belonging to the Natural family Bicornes—Genus Vaccinium—Page 151, Monotropa, or Indian pipe—Mountain laurel—Kalmia, or sheep laurel—Dionæa—Page 152. Hydrangea——Pink—Cockle—Sorrel—Poke-weed.

LECTURE XXVII. Page 152.

CLASS ICOSANDRIA—Not distinguished by number of stamens only—Page 153, Omitted class—Names of classes expressive of their character—Calycandria—Page 154, The genus Cactus—Prunus—Pomegranate—Amygdalus—ORDER DI PENTAGYNIA—Hawthorn—Pyrus, Varieties by grafting—Page 155, ORDER POLYGYNIA—Rose—Blackberry—Strawberry—Page 156. This class furnishes many kinds of fruit.

LECTURE XXVIII. Page 156.

CLASS POLYANDRIA—General character—ORDER MONOGYNIA, PODOPHYLLUM—Sarracenia—Page 157, Pond lilies—Poppy—Tea-tree—Page 158, Citrus—ORDER DI-PENTAGYNIA—Natural Order, Multisiliquæ—Peony—ORDER POLYGYNIA—Divided into two sections—Clematis—Anemone—Ranunculus—Hellebore—Page 159, Magnolia.

LECTURE XXIX. Page 159.

The two classes now to be considered—on what founded?—Orders how distinguished? CLASS DIDYNAMIA—Two orders—ORDER GYMNOSPERMIA—Page 160, ORDER ANGIOSPERMIA—CLASS TETRADYNAMIA—General character. ORDER SILICULOSA—Page 161. ORDER SILIQUOSA—Recapitulation.

LECTURE XXX. Page 161.

General character of the classes—Monadelphia and Diadelphia—CLASS MONADELPHIA, character of the class—Page 162, Orders—ORDER, TRIANDRIA—ORDER PENTANDRIA, Passion flower, different species—Generic character and name—Storks-bill geranium—Page 163, ORDER HEPTANDRIA, Pelargonium—Family of the geraniums—ORDER DECANDRIA—ORDER POLYANDRIA—Natural order Columniferæ—Page 164, Plants which compose this family—Plants of this class variable in size—Adansonia.

LECTURE XXXI. Page 165.

CLASS DIADELPHIA—Two circumstances to be noted—Flowers Papilionaceous—Fruit leguminous—ORDER PENT-OCTANDRIA—Natural order Corydales—Page 166, Polygala—ORDER DECANDRIA, General character of the order—Contains many valuable plants—Page 167, Class Polydelphia, formerly admitted—Recapitulation.

LECTURE XXXII. Page 168.

CLASS SYNGENESIA—Characters which distinguish it—Orders, how distinguished? Different kinds of florets—Page 169, ORDER ÆQUALIS, Divided into three sections—ORDER SUPERFLUA—Two sections—Artemisia—Page 170, Aster—Advantages of overcoming difficulties in the analysis of plants—Golden-rod—Crysanthemum—ORDER FRUSTRANEA--Sun-flower--Blessed-thistle—Page 171, ORDER NECESSARIA—Marygold—ORDER SEGREGATA. Elephant's-foot--Plants of this class referred to the natural order Compositæ—Jussieu's division of compound flowers—Plants of this class easily recognised—Many are valued for medicinal properties—Page 172, Found in the latter part of the season.

LECTURE XXXIII. Page 172.

CLASS GYNANDRIA—New circumstance to be regarded—Orders depend on the number of stamens—Natural family Orchideæ—Distinguishing characters of this family—Page 173, ORDER MONANDRIA—Orchis—ORDER DIANDRIA—Ladies'-slipper—ORDER PENTANDRIA, Milk-weed—Eaton's description of the Milk-weed—Page 175, ORDER HEXANDRIA—Virginia snake-root—ORDER DECANDRIA—Wild-ginger—Many plants of this class cannot be cultivated.

LECTURE XXXIV. Page 176.

Recapitulation—Two classes now to be considered—CLASS MONŒCIA, orders—ORDER MONANDRIA—Bread-fruit—Page 177, ORDER TRIANDRIA, Cat-tail

—Sedge or Carex—Indian corn—Page 178, ORDER TETRANDRIA, Mulberry—ORDER PENTANDRIA—Amaranthus, different species, as Melancholicus, &c.—ORDER POLYANDRIA—Genus Calla—Calla ethiopica, or Egyptian lily—Wild turnip—Arrow-head—Forest trees—Page 179, ORDER MONADELPHIA Cucumber tribe—General character—Cone bearing plants—Best periods for studying trees—CLASS DIŒCIA, orders—ORDER DIANDRIA—Willow—ORDER TRIANDRIA, Fig—ORDER TETRANDRIA—Miseltoe—Page 180, ORDER PENTANDRIA—Hemp, Hop, &c.—ORDER OCTANDRIA, Poplar—ORDER MONADELPHIA, Red-cedar, &c.

LECTURE XXXV. Page 181.

CLASS CRYPTOGAMIA—Founded on new principles of arrangement—Orders marked out by nature—FERNS—Page 182, Sensitive fern—MOSSES—The inconsiderate may think an insignificant part of creation—Various uses—Page 183, LIVERWORTS—Derivation of the name—Sea Weeds—Page 184, Fuci—Mushrooms, Agaricus—Opinions of some philosophers respecting the Cryptogamous plants—Page 185, Enthusiasm of some naturalists—View of classification completed—General ideas make little impression upon the mind—Particularities of individual plants best remembered—Page 186, Our minds instinctively generalize and arrange single facts.

PART IV.—LECTURE XXXVI. Page 187.

Changes in vegetation—Putting forth of leaves and blossoming of flowers agree in some respects, differ in others—Plants of the north transported to the south—Remarks on the progress of vegetation; to what extent of country applying—Page 188, Little appearance of vegetation in March—FLOWERS OF APRIL—Hepatica—Willow—Dandelion, &c.—Page 189, FLOWERS OF MAY—Viola—Anemone, &c.—Mosses now in bloom—Wild turnip, &c.—Page 190, FLOWERS OF JUNE—Very numerous—Elder, &c.—St. Patrick's use of the Clover—Geranium, &c.—Trees in perfection—Blossoms appearing at the summer solstice—After this period flowers for a short time less numerous.

LECTURE XXXVII. Page 191.

AUTUMNAL FLOWERS—Fortunate for the student that the compound flowers do not occur early in the season—Some confusion among botanical writers with respect to the compound flowers—Page 192, Lobelia, &c.—Sagittaria—Thorough-wort—Page 193, Evergreens.—In our climate no flowers blossom in winter unless protected from the cold—Pine—Spruce, &c.—Decorating churches with evergreens—Page 194, Palm Sunday—Superstitions in the Romish church with regard to the blossoming of certain plants—Page 195, During the middle ages men imagined the operations of nature connected with their peculiar religious tenets—Ignorance of the monks and nuns—VARIOUS PHENOMENA OF PLANTS—Lord Bacon's observations—Page 196, Plants which turn towards the sun—Hang their heads at night and in storms—Changes of flowers indicating changes of weather—The Go-to-bed-at-noon—The Four-o'clock—Page 197, Evening Primrose, &c. Night-blooming-Cereus, &c.—Meteoric flowers—Tropical—Equinoctial.

LECTURE XXXVIII. Page 199.

HABITS OF PLANTS—Nasturtion, &c.—Page 200, AGENTS WHICH AFFECT THE GROWTH OF PLANTS—Water—Atmospheric-air—Salts—Heat—Light—HABITATIONS OF PLANTS—Not thrown by chance over the surface of the earth—Herbs which cover the ground—Page 201, Woody shrubs—Large trees—Trees of cold countries—Of warm countries—Page 202, Different species of plants require different kinds of situations and soils—Some grow in water, &c.—Some have a confined locality—Few endure extreme cold—Page 203, Geographical situation of plants—Frigid Zone—Temperate Zone—Torrid Zone—Production of every region found in ascending mountains of the Torrid Zone—Elevation produces similar effects on vegetation, as distance from the equator.

LECTURE XXXIX. Page 204.

HISTORY OF BOTANICAL SCIENCE—After becoming familiar with a science we wish to know its history—Page 205, The first account of plants traced to the history of the creation—Milton imagines that Eve gave names to the plants and numbered their tribes. The Bible and the poems of Homer afford the only botanical facts known in the earliest ages of the world—Solomon is said to have spoken of trees and other plants—Page 206, The Magi —Philosophers of Greece—Pythagoras—Hippocrates—Aristotle—Page 207, Theophrastus—Page 208, Dioscorides—Pliny—Galen—The false philosophy of the Greeks received at Rome—Barbarians ravage Italy—Page 209, Language corrupted—Botany shared the fate of other sciences.

LECTURE XL. Page 209.

Charlemagne—Separation of the Roman Empire: its effect upon literature —210, the Arabs—Haroun Alraschid—Schools of Arabs in Spain—Their labours of some use to botanical science—Crusades—Page 211, Revival of letters—Herbariums composed—Constantinople taken by the Turks, and the literature of Greece transferred to Italy—Page 212, New World discovered—What was the history of America before this period?

LECTURE XLI. Page 212.

Botanic gardens first cultivated—213, Botanists began to discover the obstacle to the progress of the science—Era of true philosophy*—German, and other botanists—most celebrated—Gesner—214, How distinguished from his predecessors—Clusius—The first who proposed to divide plants into classes —Cœsalpinus—characters employed by him in the formation of classes—The Bauhins—215, Commencement of the 17th century not favourable to the sciences—Last part of that age, taste for Natural History revived—Many now distinguished for efforts in the cause of science—Several improvements in Botanical science—Rivinius—Magnol—216, Tournefort—Attention of Botanists turned towards Anatomy and Physiology—Invention of the Microscope—Science of Botany yet imperfect—Linnæus.

LECTURE XLII. Page 217.

Improvements made by Linnæus—Page 218, Linnæan Society in London—Botanists of France—American botanists—Page 220, Children may become botanists—The science settled on a firm foundation—State of our country favourable to the promotion of knowledge.

LECTURE XLIII. Page 221.

NATURAL HISTORY OF A STRAWBERRY PLANT.—*Remarks of St. Pierre in the commencement of his "Studies of Nature"—Nature of unbounded extent* —Page 222, *Number and variety of insects which visited the strawberry plant*—Page 223, *Fineness of sight in these insects*—Page 224, *Their perception of light and other phenomena of nature*—Page 225, *Their ignorance —Ephemeral existence—Relations of the strawberry plant to other parts of nature*—Page 226, *Varieties—Affinities to other plants*—Page 227, *St. Pierre's concluding reflection—Remarks of an English writer upon the manner in which the christian views the works of God.*

LECTURE XLIV. Page 228.

Definition of nature—The heavenly bodies—Page 229, Distinction between inorganized and organized substances—Page 230, Difficult to draw a line of distinction between the two great classes of organized beings—Obvious distinctions—Page 231, Division of nature into three kingdoms—Zoology—Division of animals into two great classes—Division of vertebral animals into four classes—Avertebral divided into two classes—Page 232, Cuvier's four grand divisions—First division containing four classes—Page 233,

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* Lord Bacon is generally considered as having first taught the proper method of studying the sciences, viz: by ascending from facts to principles; this is called the method of induction. It has recently been asserted by an able writer in one of our first American periodicals, that Bacon was not the author of the inductive philosophy, but that he borrowed his rules of philosophizing from Aristotle, whose real principles had for ages been misunderstood. It is to be hoped that men of talents will not so far depart from the true rules of philosophizing, as to devote that time in contending about the author of these rules, which might be so much more profitably employed in their application to the investigation of truth and nature.

Second division containing one class—Third division containing four classes—Page 234, Metamorphoses of insects—Fourth division containing one class.

LECTURE XLV. Page 235.

Recapitulation—Man at the head of the animal kingdom—How resembling inferior animals?—How differing from them?—Page 236, Buffon's description of man—Senses of the orders of animals next to man—Analogies between the lower orders of animals and plants—Page 237, Chains of beings proceeding from one point—Differences between the most perfect animals, and most perfect plants—Page 238, Different kinds of inorganic matter—The Deity manifested in his works—Page 239, Conclusion of the lectures.

ADDITION.

MANNER OF TAKING IMPRESSIONS OF LEAVES.

Hold oiled paper over the smoke of a lamp until it becomes darkened; to this paper, apply the leaf, having previously warmed it between the hands, that it may be pliant. Place the lower surface of the leaf upon the blackened paper, that the numerous veins which run through its extent, and which are so prominent on this side, may receive from the paper a portion of the smoke. Press the leaf upon the paper, by placing upon it some thin paper and rubbing the fingers gently over it, so that every part of the leaf may come in contact with the sooted oil paper. Then remove the leaf, and place the sooted side upon clean white paper, pressing it gently as before; upon removing the leaf, the paper will present a delicate and perfect outline, together with an accurate exhibition of the veins which extend in every direction through it, more correct and beautiful than the finest drawing.

ERRATA.

The author feels it necessary to repeat the apology made in the preface, in anticipation of the errors which she feared might appear in this edition; it was impossible for her, being in Troy, to read the proof sheets before they were struck off; and the printing has been so rapidly executed, as to leave the friend, who has kindly devoted his time to the work, while in press, little opportunity to make the numerous corrections which were necessary on account of the hasty manner in which the lectures had been prepared for publication.

Page 10—4th line from the top omit, after "corolla," the words, "long and narrow leaves," insert them in the next line after "colour."
" 19—1st line, after "corolla," insert "of the lily."
" 20—The caption "Analysis of the pink" should be placed above the second paragraph from the top.
" 24—The caption "Analysis of the Poppy," should be placed above the last paragraph on the preceding page.
" 29—For "Poly-adelphia," read Poly-delphia.
" 35—For "Grimina," read Gramina.
" 45—13th line from top, for "nor," read or.
" 55—19th line from top, omit the semicolon; in the succeeding line omit "they."
" 56—8th line from top, omit "he."
" 77—3d line from top, for "principle," read principal.
" 84—10th line from bottom, for "pedicle," read pedicel.
" 91—12th line from bottom, for "principal," read principle.
" 97—6th line from top insert *no* after "have."
" 108—3d paragraph from top, 2d line, for "these," read three.
" 112—6th line from bottom, for "14th," read 16th.
" 115—3d line from top, for "order," read class.
" 117—11th line from the bottom, for "circle," read sphere.
" 122—2d line from bottom, omit "*and placed.*"
" 132—10th line from bottom, after "acuminate," insert decurrent.
" 161—12th line from bottom, read *these classes*, for "this class."
" 166—19th line from bottom, for "de Sold," read de Soto.
" 167—6th line from bottom, for "confined," read confused.
" 172—19th line from bottom, for "organs," read orders.
" 177—Remarks upon the Amaranthus to be read in connexion with the order Pentandria in the following page, beginning after "appearance."
" 179—3d line from top, after "proper," insert cucumber.
" 205—19th line from top, for "help-mate," read help-meet.
Plate XIII. "pedical" should be pedicel.

ENGLISH INDEX.

Page.
Aaron's beard 303
Acacia 304
Adder's-tongue 286
Agrimony 272
Alder 272
Almond 273
Amaranth 272
Anemone 273
Angelica 273
Apple 302
Apricot 275
Arethusa 275, 300
Arbutus 286
Archangel 273
Arrow-head 305
Artemisia 275
Artichoke 285, 289
Ash 287
Asparagus 276
Aspen 300
Asphodel 276
Aster 276
Atamasco lily 272
Avens 288

Bachelor's button [288
Balm 295
Balsam apple 295
Barberry 278
Barley 290
Barn-grass 297
Bass wood 309
Beech 287
Bean 298, 312
Bearberry 274
Beard-tongue 298
Beech-drops 286, 302
Bed-straw 289
Beef-steak 306
Beet 278
Bellwort 311
Bindweed 283
Birch 278
Bird's nest 295
Bittersweet 307
Blackberry 305
Blackberry lily 291
Bladder-nut 309
Blite 278
Blood-root 306
Blue bottle 280
Blue curls 310
Blue-eyed grass 307
Blue hearts 278
Bohea 309
Boneset 287
Bonnet-grass 272
Borage 278
Bouncing Bet 306
Brake 302
Breast weed 306
Brooklime 312
Broom corn 308
Buckwheat 300
Bugbane 294
Bugloss 273
Bulrush 292
Burdock 274
Burnet 301
Butter cup 303
Butternut 292
Button bush 280
Button wood 299

Cabbage 278
Calabash 284
Camphor tree 292
Canada thistle 282
Canary grass 298
Cancer root 286
Caraway 279
Cardinal flower 293
Carnation 285
Carolina potato 283
Carrot 285
Cassia 279
Castor-oil plant 304
Catalpa-tree 280
Catmint 296
Catnep 296
Cat-tail 311
Cayenne pepper 279
Celandine 281
Celery 274
Chamomile 274
Cherry 301
Chesnut 280
Chickweed 273, 280
Chickwintergreen [310
China aster 277
Choke-berry 301
Chrysanthemum 281
Cinquefoil 301
Cives 272
Clarry 306
Clover 310
Clown-heal 308
Cockle 272
Cohosh 294
Colic-weed 284
Coltsfoot 310
Columbine 274
Comfrey 309
Cone-flower 305
Coriander 283
Corn 314
Cornel 288
Coronilla 283
Cotton 289
Cow-wheat 295
Coxcomb 272
Crab-apple 302
Cranberry 297
Crowfoot 303
Crown imperial 287
Cucumber 284
Currant 303

Daffodil 296

Daisy 277
Dandelion 292
Darnel grass 293
Day-flower 282
Day lily 289
Deadly night-shade [307
Dewberry 305
Dill 273
Dock 305
Dockmackie 312
Dodder 284
Dog-bane 274
Dogweed 283
Dogwood 283
Dogtooth violet 286

Ear drop 287
Egg plant 307
Egg squash 284
Elder 306
Elecampane 291
Elephant's-foot 286
Elm 311
Endive 281
Eyebright 287

False box 283
Fennel 273
Fern 268
Feverfew 281
Fig-tree 287
Fivefinger 301
Flax 293
Flower de luce 291
Flowering almond [273
Flowering fern 297
Flowering wintergreen 300
Fly honeysuckle 314
Forget-me-not 290, 296]
Four-o'clock 295
Foxglove 286, 288
Fringe tree 281, 303
Fritillary 287
Fumitory 287
Fungus 270

Gentian 288, 291
Geranium 286, 288, 298]
Germander 309
Gill-overground 288
Ginseng 297
Glasswort 305
Globe amaranth 288
Goat's beard 310
Golden-rod 307
Gold-thread 283
Gooseberry 303
Gourd 284
Grain rust 311
Grape 313
Grass pink 285
Ground ivy 288
Ground-nut 274
Ground pine 294
Guelder rose 312
Guinea-hen flower [287
Guinea pepper 279

Hackmatack 299
Hair-bell 279
Hair-cap moss 300
Hardhack 308
Hawkweed 290
Hazel-nut 284
Heal-all 301
Heath 286
Hedge nettle 308
Hellebore 289
Hemlock 299
Hemp 279
Hickory 279
Hogweed 272
Holly 291
Hollyhock 272
Honesty 294
Honeysuckle 277, 285, 293]
Hop 290
Horehound 295
Horse chesnut 271
Horse radish 282
Horse-tail 269, 286
Hound-tongue 285
Houseleek 307
Hyacinth 290
Hydrangea 290
Hygrometer moss [287

Iceland lichen 280
Iceland moss 280
Ice plant 295, 317
Indian corn 314
Indian cress 310
Indian pipe 295
Indian turnip 275
Indigo 273, 291
Iris 291
Ivy 289

Jacobea 272
Jasmine 292
Jerusalem cherry [307
Jewel-weed 291
Job's tears 282
John's wort 308
Jonquil 296
Judas tree 280
Juneberry 275

Kinnikinnick 274
King's spear 276
Knot-grass 300

Ladies' slipper 285
Larch 299
Larkspur 285
Laurel 292, 294
Laurestine 312
Lavender 292
Leather-leaf 273
Leather-wood 271
Lemon tree 282
Lettuce 292, 301
Lichen 270
Lichnidia 299
Lichnis 294
Life-everlasting 286
Lilac 309
Lily 293
Lily of the valley [283
Lime tree 309
Live-forever 307
Liver-leaf 289
Liverwort 269, 294
Lizard's tail 306
Locust 304
Loosestrife 294
Lousewort 298
Love apple 397
Love-lies-bleeding [272
Lupine 294

Madder 304
Magnolia 294
Maidenhair 271
Mallows 290, 294 307]
Mandrake 300
Maple 271
Mare's tail 290
Marjoram 297
Marsh mallows 272
Marygold 278, 308
Matrimony 294
May apple 300
Mayweed 273
Meadow grass 300
Meadow rue 309
Meadow sweet 308
Mechoacan 283
Melilot clover 295
Mezereon 285
Milkweed 275
Misseltoe 313
Mock orange 299
Monkey-flower 295
Monk's hood 271
Moose-wood 271
Morning-glory 283, 291]
Moss 269
Motherwort 293
Mould 296
Mountain flax 300
Mountain mint 295, 302]
Mountain pink 299
Mulberry 295
Mullein 211
Mushroom 272
Muskmelon 284
Mustard 307
Myrtle 296

Narcissus 296
Nasturtion 310
Nettle 311
New-Jersey tea 280
Nine-bark 308

Oak 302
Oak of Jerusalem [281
Oats 277
Okra 289
Onion 272
Orange root 290
Orange tree 282
Orchard grass 285
Orchis 297
Orpine 298, 307
Ox-eye 289
Ox-eyed daisy 281
Oyster 310

Painted-cup 277, 287
Palma christi 304
Parsley 274
Parsnip 298
Passion-flower 297
Patience 305
Pea 299
Peach 273
Pear 302
Pennyroyal 289
Pennywort 296
Peony 297
Pepper 279
Pepper-bush 282
Peppergrass 293
Peppermint 295
Periwinkle 312
Pheasant's eye 271
Phenician mallows [290
Pickerel-weed 300
Pimpernel 273, 311
Pine 299
Pink 285
Pinxter 277
Pinxter blomachee [277
Plane tree 299
Plantain 297, 299
Plum 302
Poison hemlock 283
Poke-weed 299
Polyanthos 296
Polypod 300
Pomegranate 302
Pond-lily 296
Poplar 300
Poppy 297
Potato 307
Prickly ash 314
Prickly pear 278
Prim 293
Primrose 301
Prince's pine 281
Puff-ball 294
Pumpkin 284
Purslane 301

Quaking grass 278
Queen of the meadow 308
Quickset 284
Quince 302

Radish 303
Ragged robin 294
Raspberry 304
Rattlesnake grass [278
Rattlesnake leaf 288
Rattle-box 284
Red-bud 280
Red-top 272
Reed mace 311
Rhubarb 303
Ribbon-grass 298
Rice 297
Rose 304
Rose-bay 303
Rosemary 304
Rue 305
Rush-grass 292
Rye 307

Saffron 284
Safflower 279
Sage 306
St. John's wort 290
Samphire 305
Sand myrtle 292
Sandwort 274
Sassafras 292
Satin-flower 294
Savory 306
Saxifrage 306
Scabish 296
Scouring rush 286
Scrophula weed 288
Scullcap 306
Sedge 279
Self-heal 301
Seneca snakeroot [300
Senna 279
Sensitive fern 296
Shad-bush 275
Shag walnut 279
Sheep-berry 312
Shepherd's purse 309

Shield lichen 297
Shin-leaf 302
Side-saddle 306
Simpler's joy 311
Skunk cabbage 291
Sloe 302
Snake-head 281
Snake-root 275
Snapdragon 274
Snow-ball 312
Snow-drop 287
Soapwort 306
Solomon's seal 283
Sorrel 305
Southern-wood 275
Spearmint 295
Speedwell 311
Spice-bush 292
Spiderwort 310
Spikenard 274
Spinach 308
Spring beauty 282
Spring cress 274
Squill 306
Staff-tree 280
Star-grass 291
Star of bethlehem [297
Steeple-bush 308
Stone-crop 307
Strawberry 287
Strawberry blite 278
Succory 281
Sugar cane 305
Sumach 303
Sundew 286
Sunflower 289
Sweet briar 304
Sweet cicely 311
Sweet fern 283
Sweet flag 271
Sweet pea 292
Sweet potato 283
Sweet vernal-grass [274
Sweet william 285
Sycamore 299
Syringa 299

Tamarack 299
Tansey 309
Tea 309
Thistle 282
Thorn 284
Thorn-apple 285
Thoroughwort 287
Thyme 309
Timothy-grass 299
Tobacco 296
Tomatoes 307
Touch-me-not 291
Touch-wood 278
Tree primrose 296
Trefoil 289
Trumpet-flower 278
Tuberose 300
Tulip 310
Tulip tree 293
Turnip 278
Turnsole 289
Twin-flower 293

Venus' fly trap 286
Venus' pride 290
Vervain 311
Violet 312
Virgin's-bower 282

Wake-robin 275, 310]
Wall-flower 281
Water-arum 278
Water-carpet 281
Water-cress 279
Water hemlock 282
Water lily 296
Watermelon 284
Wax-bush 284
Wheat 310
White cedar 284
White-top 272
Whortleberry 311
Wild basil 302
Wild-bean vine 273
Wild indigo 277
Willow 305
Willow-herb 286
Wind-flower 273
Wintergreen 288
Witch hazel 289
Wolf's bane 271
Woodbine 293
Wood-sage 309
Wood sorrel 297
Wormwood 275

Yarrow 271
Yellow-eyed grass [314
Yellow-root 314